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THE  
ELEMENTS

OF

ENGLISH GRAMMAR;

METHODICALLY ARRANGED

FOR THE ASSISTANCE OF YOUNG PERSONS, WHO

STUDY THE ENGLISH LANGUAGE

GRAMMATICALLY :

TO WHICH IS ADDED

A CONCISE TREATISE OF RHETORIC.

DESIGNED PARTICULARLY FOR THE USE OF

LADIES' BOARDING SCHOOLS:

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By G. NEVILLE USSHER.

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TO WHICH IS ADDED

A SHORT TREATISE ON PUNCTUATION.

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Nov 2, 1925

## P R E F A C E.

**A**S it may be expected that some reasons should be given for the publication of this little treatise on a subject, that has been successfully investigated by some of our ablest writers, the author will candidly acknowledge, that, from the experience he has already had of its utility, he flatters himself it will be found better calculated for grounding youth in the knowledge of English grammar, than the books, which are generally used for that purpose.

The works of our ablest grammarians are allowed to be too voluminous and abstruse for the capacity of children, and more adapted to finish the scholar, than to initiate and instruct the young beginner. From their works, several smaller abstracts have been made for the use of schools, which, on the contrary, are upon too contracted a plan to furnish an useful knowledge of grammar, particularly to those, who do not learn the ancient languages. The author has endeavoured to take the middle course between the two extremes, and to give a concise, though at the same time a comprehensive view of his subject. He has likewise rejected the mode of instruction by question and answer, with which some of our grammars are encumbered, as desultory and ill calculated for imparting a systematic knowledge of science, and which seems to succeed only in the Socratic mode of reasoning, where truth is to be deduced from the concessions of an adversary. The beauties of taste or of the imagination may indeed be displayed to advantage in a sprightly dialogue; but these ornaments are totally foreign to the purpose in a treatise of abstract science.

He is aware, that the mode of initiating youth in grammar by question and answer is recommended by names eminent in literature. But time, which with equal ease overturns empires and the systems of the learned, has shewn, that opinions and modes of thinking are sanctioned by no names however respectable in their day, and that experience is the ultimate criterion for judging of what is true or useful in science. This is the tribunal to which the author appeals, the tribunal of experience, from which he demands noth-

ing but a fair trial. Should he be disappointed in his wishes of success, he may at least claim the indulgence which is due to a well meant though unsuccessful attempt.

About a century ago our language was thought incapable of grammatical accuracy from the little analogy it has with the Latin and Greek, which were the only languages then studied grammatically. But this mistaken notion has been refuted by the successive labours of the learned, who have investigated its nature, remarked its peculiar idioms, and reduced it to grammatical precision. Although in its present improved state we may not find in it the majesty and force of the learned languages, yet when we take a view of its peculiar structure and genius, we behold a system regular in its parts, and perhaps equalling those languages in all other respects. Its simplicity is remarkable, notwithstanding the number of propositions that encumber it ; though we must own at the same time, they contribute to its variety and precision.

As a grammatical knowledge of English is become essentially necessary in the education of ladies, it is certainly a desirable object to render that study as easy and as useful to them as possible. For this reason, in a treatise of grammar intended for their use, all abstract terms, that could be dispensed with should be rejected ; all reference to the learned languages omitted ; and the rules delivered in the plainest manner possible, and so divided, that each may not form too large an object for the comprehension of the young beginner : the strictest connection should be observed ; the dependance of the different parts of speech on one another clearly pointed out ; and the whole theory of language, as far at least as it influences writing and conversation, should be brought into view. These are not imaginary advantages in such a treatise, for knowledge in every science depends essentially upon a proper and natural combination of ideas. Such are the advantages the author has proposed to himself in this epitome, and if he has succeeded, he will think better of his performance than if it were embellished with all the learning of the schools.



## PREFACE.

The author of this little tract has endeavoured far as his narrow limits would allow, to explain his young pupil the peculiar structure, and remind him the chief features of his native language. as he knows, that rules and precepts, though ever often inculcated, make but a slight and transient impression on the minds of youth, and are soon forgotten, he has formed at the end of the grammar a collection of faulty expressions, so connected with grammar, that the learner by referring to the rule may correct them with the greatest ease.

These examples are to serve as lessons of part to young beginners. He has found them of more use than any others, that could be substituted in their place, as they oblige the learner to recur more frequently for information to the more useful and necessary rules of grammar. Every example is marked with figures referring to the rule, to which it belongs. When any rule merits particular attention, additional examples are added for the sake of further illustration. To prevent mistakes, the examples of bad English are printed in *Italics*. Such observations as seem too difficult for children, and which could not well be omitted in a regular treatise, are thrown into the form of notes, and may be passed over by the young beginner.

The method, which the author pursues, is to make his pupils explain every day a part of the grammar with the examples in the lessons of parsing belonging to it, till they have gone thro' the whole. They then begin with the examples alone, which they explain and correct by the rules, to which the figures direct. When they can readily correct them without turning to the rules, they compose examples for every rule of grammar similar to those given; which tends to exercise their ingenuity, and habituate them to write their native language with ease and propriety. They afterwards parse in *Enfield's Speaker*, or in the *Rhetoric* annexed to the grammar. His pupils are obliged to learn nothing by heart, but the declensions of Substantives and Pronouns, and the conjugations of Verbs. The slavish method of committing a whole book to memory, which is generally done with v

little assistance or improvement of the understanding, is totally rejected ; and grammar is rendered, what it ought to be, an object and exercise of the intellectual faculties, which are strengthened more by this perhaps, than by any other study whatsoever.

As the figures of Rhetoric often interfere with the rules of grammar, particularly in the parsing of poetry, a very concise treatise of Rhetoric is annexed to this edition. Several examples of each figure are given, from which a better knowledge of the subject may be derived than from precepts alone. The knowledge of grammar is perfected by frequent parsing, which at the same time gives the learner an adequate idea of the import and construction of every sentence. The parsing of poetry is for this reason recommended to young beginners, who will be led by this easy method to understand its beauties.

The author wished to insert a few instructions in punctuation ; but he found, that whatever could be said on the subject was of too abstract and too general a nature to be useful to young beginners, and instead of them recommends a method, which he has seen practised with success. The pupil copies a passage selected for the purpose, without marking the stops. He then shuts the book, reads over what he has written till he understands it, and marks the stops to the best of his judgment, which he afterwards corrects by his printed original. This exercise, with a few verbal instructions, will give the young scholar a more ready knowledge of punctuation, than he can collect from directions, which must necessarily be founded upon abstract reasoning. When arrived at maturer years he may consult with advantage the treatises written upon that subject.

It is recommended to the learner to pay particular attention to *Ellipsis*, as by that figure many idiomatical phrases are easily and naturally explained, without burdening the memory with rules. The learner should also conjugate frequently either a regular or irregular verb according to the example *to choose*, given in the grammar.

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THE  
ELEMENTS  
OF  
ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

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1. **G**RAMMAR in general, or universal Grammar, explains the principles which are common to all languages.

2. English Grammar accommodates those general principles to the English language, and furnishes a system of such observations and rules as are necessary for speaking and writing it according to the usage of the most approved writers and speakers.

3. Grammar is usually divided into four parts; Orthography, Etymology, Syntax, and Prosody.

4. Orthography teaches the spelling of words.

5. Etymology treats of the variations of words.

6. Syntax teaches how to join words in a sentence.

7. Prosody gives rules for versification.

### ETYMOLOGY AND SYNTAX.

1. **A**S Etymology and Syntax are the chief objects of enquiry in the study of Grammar, and are closely connected, we shall confine our Observations to those parts of Grammar; and shall first give the Etymology, and then the Rules of Syntax belonging to each class of words.

2. Words are generally divided into nine classes commonly called parts of speech, namely, the ARTICLE, the SUBSTANTIVE or NOUN, the PRONOUN, the ADJECTIVE, the VERB, the ADVERB, the PREPOSITION, the CONJUNCTION, and the INTERJECTION.

## ARTICLES.

1. **T**HERE are two Articles, *a* or *an* and *the*. They are prefixed to Substantives to shew how far their signification extends.

2. *A* or *an* is called the indefinite Article, because it does not determine any particular person or thing ; as, *a child* signifies any child whatever ; *a book*, any kind of a book.

3. *The* is called the definite Article, because it determines what particular person or thing is spoken of ; as, *where is the book. I see the child.* The article *the* shows that some particular child or book is spoken of.

## OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

4. The Articles are never set before the names of persons, animals, towns, countries, or districts. Ex. *Alexander's horse was named Bucephalus.* The names, *Alexander* and *Bucephalus*, have no Article before them.

5. *A* is used before words beginning with a Consonant, or with *b* aspirated ; as, *a glove, a\* youngster, a hero.*

6. *An* is used before words beginning with a Vowel, or with *b* not aspirated ; as, *an apron, an oyster, an hour.*

7. The indefinite Article is used before Substantives of the singular number only ; as, *a city has been destroyed by an earthquake.* Plural Substantives, used in an indefinite sense, have no article before them ; as, *cities have been destroyed by earthquakes.*

8. The indefinite Article is often used instead of *each* or *every* ; as, *he has five hundred pounds a year, that is every year.*

9. The indefinite Article is placed before terms of number taken collectively, so as to give the idea of a whole, though the following Substantive be in the plural number ; as, *a few fishes ; a hundred pounds.*

10. The definite Article *the* is set before Substantives both of the singular and plural number, because

\* Y is a consonant when it begins a word.

we can speak determinately of many, as well as of one ; thus, *the child*, or, *the children*.

11. The definite Article is prefixed to the names of seas, rivers, ships ; and of such countries and mountains, as are in the plural number ; as, *the Atlantic*, *the Severn*, *the Royal George*, *the Alps*, *the West Indies*, &c.

## SUBSTANTIVES.

1. **A** Substantive or Noun is the name of any thing that exists or may exist ; as, *sun*, *house*, *virtue*, *goodness*.

2. A word is a Substantive, when it can be made the subject of discourse ; as, *I speak of virtue*, *I speak of goodness*.

3. Substantives are either proper or common.

4. A Substantive proper is a proper name ; as, *John*, *the Severn*, *Glocester*, *England*.

5. Substantives common are the names of things in general ; as *a man*, *a river*, *a city*, *a kingdom*.

6. NUMBER is the distinction of one from many. There are two numbers, the singular and plural.

7. The singular number speaks but of one ; as, *a king*, *a house*, *a proof*.

8. The plural number speaks of more than one, and is formed by adding *s* to the singular ; as, *kings*, *houses*, *proofs*. [See examples of this and the following rules in par. 21.]

9. But when the singular ends in *o*, *x*, *ch*, *sh*, or *s*, the plural is formed by adding *es* ; as *hero*, *heroes*. *Fox*, *Foxes*. *Church*, *Churches*.

10. The following Substantives, ending in *f*, or *fe*, form their plurals irregularly by changing *f*, or *fe*, into *ves* ; as, *calf*, *calves*. *Elf*, *elves*. *Half*, *halves*. *Knife*, *knives*, &c. *Hoof*, *hoofs*, *chief*, *handkerchief*, *reproof*, *snuff*, and several others, are made plural by the addition of *s* only.

11. Nouns ending in *y* after a consonant form their plurals by changing *y* into *ies* ; as, *Lady*, *ladies*, &c.

12. *Man*, and all its compounds, form their plurals by changing *a* into *e* ; as, *man*, *men*.

13. The following Substantives form their plurals irregularly ; *Child*, *children*. *Ox*, *oxen*. *Die*, *dice*. *Foot*, *feet*. *Goose*, *geese*. *Mouse*, *mice*. *Penny*, *pence*. *Tooth*, *teeth*. *Brother* makes *brothers* and *brethren*.

14. Some Hebrew words add *im* to the singular to form the plural ; as, *Cherub*, *Cherubim*. *Seraph*, *Seraphim*. Some from the Greek change *on* into *a* ; as, *Phenomenon*, *Phenomena*. *Automaton*, *automata*. *Criterion*, *criteria*.

15. A few Substantives, derived from the Latin, form their plurals by changing *us* into *i* ; as, *Genius*, (a spirit) *genii*. *Magus*, *magi*. *Radius* *radii*, &c. *Genius*, signifying a man, endowed with superior abilities, follows the general rule ; as, *England* has many *geniuses*.

16. The following Substantives, *deer*, *hose*, *sheep*, *means*, and *sail* (a ship) are the same in both numbers, as, *one sail of the line*. *Twenty sail of the line*. *Sail*, when used for the sails of a ship, has a plural number ; as, *the sails were set*. *Mean*, in the singular, signifies *medium* ; as, *Observe the golden mean*.

17. Some words, from the nature of the things which they express, or from custom alone, have no singular number ; as, *alms*, *amends*, *annals*, *ashes*, *assets*, *bellows*, *bowels*, *clothes*, *calends*, *creffes*, *entrails*, *goods*, *lungs*, *odds*, *riches*, *oats*, *scissars*, *sheers*, *snuffers*, *tongs*, *thanks*, *tidings*, *viçtuals*, *vitals*, and *wages*.

18. Proper names ; as *Jahn*, *London* ; the names of virtues, as, *generosity* ; of vices, as, *avarice* ; and abstract nouns, that is, nouns which are objects of the understanding, though not of the senses ; as *prudence*, *bravery*, *bashfulness*, *swiftness*, &c. and likewise bodily affections, such as, *hunger*, *thirst*, &c. do not admit the plural number.

19. Collective terms, such as, *bread*, *beer*, *ale*, *honey*, *milk*, *butter*, *wax*, *beef*, *wheat*, *grass*, *gold*, &c. have no plurals.

20. CASES. Though Substantives by their variations mark but two Cases, the Nominative and Possessive, we shall find it convenient to mention the Objective Case, particularly when we speak of the Verbs.

21. Substantives are varied as follows, to express the different Numbers and Cases.

Singular.		Plural.	
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a King.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>kings.</i>
Poss.	<i>king's.</i>	Poss.	<i>kings'.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Calf.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>calves.</i>
Poss.	<i>a calf's.</i>	Poss.	<i>calves'.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Lady.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>ladies.</i>
Poss.	<i>a lady's.</i>	Poss.	<i>ladies'.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Man.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>men.</i>
Poss.	<i>a man's.</i>	Poss.	<i>men's.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Child.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>children.</i>
Poss.	<i>a child's.</i>	Poss.	<i>children's.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Seraph.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>seraphim.</i>
Poss.	<i>a seraph's.</i>	Poss.	<i>seraphim's.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Genius.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>genii.</i>
Poss.	<i>a genius'.</i>	Poss.	<i>genii's.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Genius.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>geniuses.</i>
Poss.	<i>a genius'.</i>	Poss.	<i>geniuses'.</i>
Nom. and Obj.	<i>a Deer.</i>	Nom. and Obj.	<i>deer.</i>
Poss.	<i>a deer's.</i>	Poss.	<i>deer's.</i>

22. GENDERS. There are three Genders; the Masculine, the Feminine, and the Neuter.

23. All Nouns denoting males are of the masculine gender; as, *a man, a father, a son, an uncle.*

24. All Nouns denoting females are of the feminine gender; as, *a woman, a mother, a girl, an aunt.*

25. All Nouns, that signify things without life, are neuter. Also, Nouns denoting creatures whose

sex is unknown, or has not been determined by the custom of language, may be looked upon as neuter. *Ex. a house, a stone, a bird, a mole, a worm.*

26. The sex or gender of some Substantives is distinguished by the addition of another Substantive; as, *a man-servant, a maid-servant, &c.*

27. Some Substantives of the masculine gender form their feminine by the addition of *ess*; as, *Baron, baroness. Count, countess. Heir, heiress. Jew, jewess. Lion, lioness. Patron, patroness. Prior, prioress. Poet, poetess. Prophet, prophetess. Shepherd, shepherdess. Tutor, tutress. Viscount, viscountess.*

28. Other Substantives form their feminine by changing the last syllable of the masculine into *ess* or *ix*; as, *Abbot, abbess. Actor, actress. Duke, duchess. Elector, electress. Embassador, embassadress. Emperor, empress. Gouverneur, governess. Hunter, huntress. Marquis, marchioness. Prince, princess. Administrator, administratrix. Executor, executrix.*

29. The sex or gender of some Substantives is often distinguished by different words; as, *Batchelor, maid. Boar, sow. Boy, girl. Bridegroom, bride. Brother, sister. Buck, doe. Bull, cow. Bullock, heifer. Cock, hen. Dog, bitch. Drake, duck. Father, mother. Friar, nun. Gander, goose. Horse, mare. Husband, wife. King, queen. Lad, lass. Lord, lady. Man, woman. Master, mistress. Miller, spawner. Nephew, niece. Ram, ewe. Sloven, slut. Son, daughter. Stag, hind. Uncle, aunt. Widower, widow. Wizard, witch.*

### OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

30. To express the singular number of such words as have only the plural number in use, we add another word; as, *I have but one pair of scissors. I read one of the annals of Tacitus.*

31. Substantives, taken in the largest and most unlimited sense, do not admit the articles before them; as, *the proper study of Mankind is man. Here the*



Substantives *Mankind* and *Man* are used in the largest sense, and therefore have no Articles before them.

32. Proper names, when used in a figurative sense, or by way of distinction, admit the plural number ; as, *there are but few Mecenases*. They likewise admit the articles before them ; as, *the Cæsars were the twelve first emperors of Rome*.

33. When a name consists of more terms than one, the possessive singular, and the nominative plural, are formed by subjoining the *s* to the last of the terms ; as, *his brother John's wife* ; *the two Doctor Smiths*.

34. When the Noun ends in *s* or *ss*, the possessive case is formed by the addition of an apostrophe only ; as, *for righteousness' sake*, *on eagles' wings*.

35. A Noun of multitude is a word comprehending many individuals. Ex. *Army, society, &c*. When these words are constantly used in the most extensive sense, they have no plural number : as, *clergy, laity, &c*.

36. Substantives, formed by joining two Substantives, into one, are called Compound Substantives ; such are, *seaman, footman, &c*. A Hyphen is sometimes placed between Substantives thus joined ; as, *sea-fish, a silver-tankard, &c*. but it is better omitted ; the former Substantive being considered an Adjective ; as, *Manchester cotton*.

37. Two or more Nouns, signifying the same person or thing, are put in the same case ; as, *Paul the Apostle*. *Paul* and *Apostle* mean the same person. *Marcus Tullius Cicero*.

38. When an address is made to a person, the Noun or Pronoun is the Nominative Case, independent on the rest of the sentence ; as, *I am, Sir, your friend*.

## PRONOUNS.

1. **A PRONOUN** is a word used instead of a Noun, to avoid the two frequent repetition of the Noun.

2. Pronouns are either Substantives or Adjectives. The Pronoun Substantives are, *I, thou, he, she, it, ought, self, one, who, whoever, & whosoever*. The Pro-

noun Adjectives are, *which, whichever, whichever, what, whatever whatsoever, this, that other, any, none, some, each, every, either, neither, own, such, same, my, thy, her, our, your, and their.\**

3. Such of the pronouns as vary in their terminations are declined as follows :

Singular.			Plural.	
Nom.	I.	Nom.	we.	
Poss.	mine.	Poss.	ours.	
Obj.	me.	Obj.	us.	
Nom.	Thou.	Nom.	ye or you.	
Poss.	thine.	Poss.	yours.	
Obj.	thee.	Obj.	you.	
Nom.	He.	Nom.	they.	
Poss.	his.	Poss.	theirs.	
Obj.	him.	Obj.	them.	
Nom.	She.	Nom.	they.	
Poss.	hers.	Poss.	theirs.	
Obj.	her.	Obj.	them.	
Nom.	It.	Nom.	they.	
Poss.	its.	Poss.	theirs.	
Obj.	it.	Obj.	them.	
Nom. and Obj.	One	Nom. and Obj.	ones.	
Poss.	one's.	Poss.	one's.	
Nom. and Obj.	Another.	N. and O.	other or others.	
Poss.	another's.	Poss.	others'.	
Nom. and Obj.	Self.	Nom. and Obj.	selves.	
Nom. and Obj.	This.	Nom. and Obj.	these.	
Nom. and Obj.	That.	Nom. and Obj.	those.	

#### Singular and Plural.

Nom.	Who,	Poss.	Whose,	Obj.	Whom,
	Whoever,		Whoever,		Whoever,
	Whosoever,		Whosoever,		Whomsoever,
	Which,		Whose,		Which.

\* *My, thy, her, our, your and their,* may be called. possessive. Pronoun Adjectives.

## OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

4. The pronouns *I, thou, he, she* and *it*, are called personal pronouns, because they represent the three persons used in conversation or writing. *I* represents the first person or speaker; *thou* the second person or person spoken to; and *he* or *she* the third person or person spoken of. *It* is called a personal pronoun because it represents Substantives, which are always spoken of in the third person. Personal pronouns never admit the articles before them.

5. The first and second personal pronouns mark no distinction of gender; but the third personal pronoun distinguishes the three genders; *he* the masculine, *she* the feminine, and *it* the neuter. *It* is neuter, because it agrees with Substantives of the neuter gender.

6. When a pronoun or Substantive is in the Possessive case it expresses property or possession, and always precedes the Substantive governing it; as, *John's house. Achilles' valour.* *John's* and *Achilles'* are Possessive Cases preceding the Substantives *house* and *valour*.

7. *Mine* and *thine* are often used in poetry, instead of *my* and *thy*, and sometimes in prose before a vowel; as, *by the greatness of thine arm.*

8. We use the plural *you*, instead of the singular *thou*, when we speak to a single person; as, *my friend I am ready to serve you.* In poetry however, and when we address the Divine Being, we generally use *thou*.

9. Pronouns from their nature may be Relatives, that is, they may relate to some person or thing, expressed or understood in the former part of the sentence, which is called the Antecedent; as, *I saw the gentleman who was at the play.* *Gentleman* is the Antecedent, and *who* is the Relative agreeing with it. *What did you see? What* is a Relative agreeing with its Antecedent *thing* understood.

10. The Personal Pronouns often serve as Antecedents in a sentence, and have other Pronouns as Re-

latives agreeing with them ; thus, *he who obeys not the laws.* *He* is the Antecedent, and *who* is a Relative agreeing with it.

11. The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in number, person, and gender.

12. First in number ; as, *when soldiers are ordered they must obey ;* the Relative *they* is in the plural number, agreeing with its Antecedent *soldiers.* *Methusalem lived 960 years, and he died ;* the Relative *he* is in the singular number, agreeing with its Antecedent *Methusalem.*

13. Again, *the King and Queen put on their robes.* The possessive *their* is in the plural number, agreeing with its two Antecedents *King* and *Queen.* It is therefore improper to say, *dost thou not perceive that all will be yours.* *Yours* ought to be *thine* to agree with its Antecedent *thou* in the singular number.

14. Secondly, the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in person ; as, *I who am ;* *who* is in the first person, agreeing with its Antecedent *I.* *Thou who art idle ;* *who* is in the second person, agreeing with its Antecedent *thou.* *He that calls me ;* the Relative *that* is the third person, agreeing with its Antecedent *he.*

15. If a Relative agree with Antecedents of different persons, it should agree with the first person in preference to the second and third, and with the second in preference to the third ; as, *you and I have our objections to it.* *Our* is the first person agreeing with the first person *I* in preference to the second person *you.*

16. Thirdly, the Relative agrees with its Antecedent in gender ; as, *a man called upon me, and he told me ;* the Relative *he* agrees in gender with its Antecedent *man.* *A woman fell ill yesterday, and she died to-day ;* *she* agrees in gender with its Antecedent *woman.* *My book fell into the fire, and it was burnt ;* *it* agrees in gender, with its Antecedent *book.*

17. The neuter pronoun *it* is employed to express the subject of any discourse or sentence ; as, *you have been ill, and I knew nothing of it.* Here *it* refers to

the phrase, *you have been ill* ; which on this occasion is its Antecedent.

18. It is often used for the state or condition of persons or things. Ex. *how is it with you ?*

19. It sometimes refers to a Substantive which is understood, and which can be known only by the meaning of the sentence ; as, *It is hot*, that is, *the weather is hot*.

20. The Pronoun *self* is joined to the Possessive Pronouns forming in the singular number the compound pronouns, *myself*, *thyself*, *yourself*, *himself*, *herself*, *itself* ; and in the plural, *ourselves*, *yourselves*, *themselves*. *Ourself* is used only in the regal stile.

21. These Compound Pronouns are frequently added to Personal Pronouns, and proper names when used emphatically ; thus, *you yourselves know it*. On these occasions they sometimes stand at a distance from the Pronoun or Substantive ; as, *I heard it myself*.

22. *Who* refers to persons, and *which* to things and irrational creatures ; as, *I love the friend, who has done me a kindness, though she be guilty of faults which I dislike*. *Who* refers to friend, and *which* to faults.

23. But when a question is asked, *which* is to be used both for persons and things ; as, *which man do you think the tallest ? Which house do you like the best ?*

24. *This* is always used with Substantives in the singular number, and *these* with Substantives in the plural ; as, *this house*, *these houses*. When *that* points out a person or thing it also has the plural number ; as, *that man*, *those houses*.

25. When *this* and *that* are applied in the same sentence to different Antecedents, *that* refers to the first and *this* to the last Antecedent ; as, *choose wisdom rather than folly ; that will make thee honourable, but this contemptible*. Here *that* refers to *wisdom* and *this* to *folly*.

26. A Personal Pronoun is sometimes used improperly instead of the Plural Pronoun *those*. Ex. *give me them books ; observe them three persons* ; ought to be, *give me those books ; observe those three persons*.

27. *That* is often used as a Relative instead of *who*.

and *which*, and is the same in both numbers ; as, *have you seen the man that (or who) called. The books that (or which) you require are lost* ; but it is more properly applied to things than to persons, except on the following occasions :

28. First, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which*, after an Adjective in the superlative degree ; as, *he was the ablest minister that James ever had.*

29. Secondly, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which* after *same* and *who* ; as, *he is the same man that you saw before. Who, that has any sense, could argue thus.*

30. Thirdly, *that* is more proper than *who* or *which* when it serves as a relative to two Antecedents, the one a person, the other a thing ; as, *have you seen the man and horse that I met.*

31. *What* sometimes includes both the Antecedent *that* and its Relative *which* ; thus, *you may take which you like ; or, you may take that which you like.*

32. When *other* agrees with Substantives in the plural number, *other* is used when the Substantive is expressed, and *others* when it is understood ; as, *envy not others their riches ; or, envy not other people their riches.*

33. *Either* signifies only the one or the other of two things taken separately ; as, *will you have either of these two books.* Instead therefore of saying, *he may have any of my two horses*, we ought to say, *he may have either of my two horses.*

34. *Each* signifies two or a greater number taken separately ; as, *I met two men, and I gave to each a shilling.* The following sentences are faulty : *The two Kings sat either of them on his throne. Nadab and Abihu took either of them his censor. Either in both places ought to be each.*

35. *Each other* ought to be used when we speak of only two persons or things ; as, *the two men struck each other.* It is therefore improper to say, *two men ignorant of one another's language.* We should say, *two men ignorant of each other's language.*

36. *One another* is used when several persons or things are spoken of ; as, *four men were talking to one*

*another.* The following sentence is improper ; *several governments rivals of each other.* We should say, *several governments rivals of one another.*

37. *Every* may agree with a plural Noun conveying a collective idea ; as, *every twelve years.*

38. When several Relatives agree with the same Antecedent, they should be the same. The following sentence is faulty ; *the man that came last week, and who was sick, went away this morning :* the Relatives *that* and *who*, as they refer to the same person, ought to be expressed by the same Pronoun ; as, *the man, who came here last week, and who was sick, went away this morning ;* or, &c.

39. The Relative ought to point out clearly its Antecedent. The following sentence is faulty ; *men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think that their reputation obscures them.* Here is a confusion arising from *them* and *their* referring to different Antecedents. The phrase is better thus ; *men look with an evil eye upon the good that is in others, and think, that the reputation of such as are good obscures their own.*

## ADJECTIVES.

1. **A**N Adjective is a word joined to a Substantive to express some quality or circumstance belonging to it ; as, *a good girl ; a round table ; five books.* *Good, round, and five,* are Adjectives joined to the Substantives *girl, table, and books.*

2. Adjectives admit three degrees of comparison ; the positive, the comparative, and the superlative.

3. The positive mentions the Adjective without any increase or diminution ; as, *strong, wife.*

4. The comparative somewhat increases or decreases the positive ; and is formed by adding *r* or *er* to the positive, or by setting before it the Adverb *more* ; as, *stronger, or more strong ; wiser, or more wise.*

5. The superlative increases or diminishes the positive to the highest degree ; and is formed by adding *st* or *est* to the positive, or by prefixing to it the Ad-

verb *most* ; as, *strongest*, or *most strong* ; *wisest*, or *most wise*.

### EXAMPLES.

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
<i>Wise,</i>	<i>wiser or more wise,</i>	<i>wisest or most wise.</i>
<i>High,</i>	<i>higher or more high,</i>	<i>highest or most high.</i>

6. Adjectives that end in *y*, change the *y* into *i*, when their termination alters ; as,

<i>Dry,</i>	<i>drier or more dry,</i>	<i>driest or most dry,</i>
<i>Happy,</i>	<i>happier or more happy,</i>	<i>happiest or most happy.</i>

7. Adjectives, consisting of more syllables than one, are generally compared by *more* and *most* only ; as,

<i>Sparing,</i>	<i>more sparing,</i>	<i>most sparing.</i>
<i>Splendid,</i>	<i>more splendid,</i>	<i>most splendid.</i>

8. The following Adjectives are compared irregularly, and some of them are peculiar in not admitting the mode of comparison by *more* and *most* :

<i>Good,</i>	<i>better,</i>	<i>-best.</i>
<i>Bad, ill, evil,</i>	<i>worse,</i>	<i>worst.</i>
<i>Little,</i>	<i>less,</i>	<i>least.</i>
<i>Much, many,</i>	<i>more,</i>	<i>most.</i>
<i>Near,</i>	<i>nearer,</i>	<i>nearest or next.</i>
<i>Late,</i>	<i>later or latter,</i>	<i>latest or last.</i>
<i>Far,</i>	<i>farther,</i>	<i>farthest.</i>

*Latter* and *last* refer either to time or place : *later* and *latest* to time only.

9. Some Adjectives, relating to place and situation, have only the superlative degree, which is formed by adding *most* to the positive, as positive *fore* ; superlative *foremost* ; *hinder*, *hindermost* ; *nether*, *nethermost* ; *under*, *undermost* ; *upper*, *uppermost* ; and *utter*, *uttermost*, or *utmost*.

### OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

10. The Adjective and Participle agrees with some Substantives ; as, *a large garden* ; *large* is an Adjective agreeing with the Substantive *garden*. The Substantive is sometimes understood ; as, *many were found unworthy* ; *many* and *unworthy* are Adjectives, agreeing with the Substantive *persons* understood.



11. The Adjective, though usually placed before the Substantive, when it is followed by a clause depending upon it, is to be placed after the Substantive; as, *I have taken a house, large enough for my purpose.* The Adjective *large* follows the Substantive *house*, with which it agrees.

12. The Adjective likewise if it be an epithet of honour, as, *Alexander the Great*; if an Adjective of order, as, *George the Third*; if it express dimension, as, *a wall 20 feet high*; or if harmony require it, as, *ye powers divine*; may be placed after the Substantive.

13. *One*, when it expresses number, as, *I have but one book*, is an Adjective: but when taken in an unlimited or general sense, as, *one is apt to think so*, it is a Pronoun Substantive. It is declined only when a Pronoun.

14. Adjectives of number are frequently converted into Substantives, and as such admit the plural number, or have an Article or an Adjective before them; as, *a million of men.* *Many hundreds of pounds.*

15. Adjectives with the definite article before them, often become Substantives; as, *the beautiful and sublime please universally.* Here *beautiful* and *sublime* are Adjectives used as Substantives. Such Substantives often have Adjectives joined to them; as, *the virtuous few.*

16. When an Adjective is joined to a Substantive, the Article is generally placed before the Adjective; as, *an excellent Sermon.* *The new book.*

17. But the Adjectives *such* and *many*, when joined to Substantives in the singular number, and such Adjectives as follow the words, *as*, *so*, *too*, and *how*, have the articles placed after them; as, *such a gift*; *many a man*; *so great a labour*; *too small a reward*; *how fine the prospect is*! The Adjective *all* has the article after it; as, *all the men.*

18. The comparative degree contains two distinct terms, which ought to be connected by the conjunction *than*; as, *Socrates was wiser than his judges.* *Socrates* and *his judges*, between whom the comparison is made, were distinct persons.

19. The following sentence is therefore faulty ; *of all the books here, mine has lost fewer leaves.* The comparative *fewer* is here construed with *of* instead of *than*. The sentence ought to be ; *my book has lost fewer leaves than any book here.*

20. In the Superlative degree the first term ought to be contained in the second, which must be either a Noun of multitude or in the plural number ; and the two terms are connected by the Preposition *of* ; as, *Socrates was the wisest man of his nation.* Here the first term *Socrates* is contained in the second term *his nation*, which is a Noun of multitude.

21. The following sentence is therefore incorrect ; *my book has the fewest leaves torn of any other book here.* In this sentence the first term *my book* is not contained in the second term *any other book*. It should be thus altered ; *my book has the fewest leaves torn of all the books here ; or, of all the books here, mine has the fewest leaves torn.\**

22. The impropriety of the singular number after Adjectives in the superlative degree would be more apparent were we to say, *the best of any man*, instead of, *the best of men* ; or *the wisest of any being*, for, *the wisest of beings*.

23. There is likewise an impropriety in the word *other*, which can never be used in the second term of the superlative degree, because it cannot possibly contain the first. We may say in the comparative, *he is richer than the other*, or, *than the others* ; but we cannot say, *he is the richest of the other*, or *of the others*.

24. The following sentences ; *this vice enters deep-*

\* These observations will enable us to account for the poet's mistake, where he uses the superlative degree without observing, that the first term ought always to be contained in the second. If we judge strictly by our rule, Adam, in the following lines, must be supposed one of his own sons, and Eve, one of her own daughters. See Spectator, No. 285.

"Adam, the godliest man, of men since born,  
"His sons, the fairest of her daughters, Eve."

A similar observation has been made on the passage in the Emperor Julian's works, where he introduces Trajan saying : "*Of all the Emperors who preceded me, I was the mildest to my subjects.*"

*est into the soul of any other. This remedy may prove the surest of any other ; should be thus altered ; of all vices this enters the deepest into the soul. Of all remedies this may prove the surest.*

25. The only occasion when *of* may follow the comparative degree in such sentences as the following, in which the Adjective may very properly be either in the comparative or superlative degree, as the last term contains the first ; thus, *he is the taller of the two ; or, he is the tallest of the two.*

26. A double comparative or a double superlative is very improper ; as, *he is a more wiser man than he ought to be, he is a more wise man than you, or, a wiser wiser man than you. It was the most strange I ever saw ; ought to be, it was the most str.* called the *ever saw ; or, it was the strangest thing.* complete and

27. Adjectives of numbers, and whose signification cannot be encreased, finished compared ; such as, *extreme, universal, perfect, &c.* Ex. *Taste when brought to its most perfect state ; ought to be, taste when brought to its perfect state ; or, to its most improved state.*

28. An Adjective, preceded by a Preposition, and having no Substantive, with which it is connected, is used Adverbially ; as, *at all. In particular. In general.*

## VERBS.

1. **A** VERB signifies to be ; or to act ; and is known by its readily agreeing with the personal Pronouns ; as, *I sleep, he sleeps.*

2. There are two kinds of Verbs ; Active, and Neuter.

3. A Verb Active, or as it is sometimes called, a Verb Transitive, expresses the manner, in which a person or thing called the agent affects another person or thing called the object ; as, *John struck William.* John is the agent or person that acted ; *struck* is the Verb Active ; and *William* is the object.

4. A Verb Neuter denotes being, or existing, as,

*I am* ; or the being in some posture, situation, or circumstance ; as, *I sit* ; *I stand* ; *I lie*.

5. Verbs are varied through Moods, Tenses, and Participles. This variation is called the Conjugation of a Verb.

6. There are five Moods ; the Indicative, Imperative, Potential, Subjunctive, and Infinitive.

7. The Indicative Mood simply declares or affirms a thing ; as, *I choose* ; *I have chosen*.

8. The Imperative Mood commands, entreats, or exhorts ; as, *choose* ; *choose ye*.

9. The Potential Mood is known by the auxilia-

ry, *can*, *must*, *might*, *could*, *should*, and *would* ; as, *my book can choose* ; *I might choose*.

10. The Subjunctive Mood is known by its being ed in the second person, *whether he chooses this or that*.

11. The Infinitive Mood is known by its having *to* before it ; as, *to choose* ; *to have chosen*.

12. Verbs have neither number, nor person, nor nominative case.

12. There are five Tenses or Times ; the Present, Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future.

13. The Present Tense speaks of present time ; as, *I choose* ; *he chooses*.

14. The Imperfect Tense speaks of time that passed whilst something was doing ; as, *I called*, or *did call*, *whilst you were at work* ; or of time perfectly past ; as, *Alexander conquered the Persians*.

15. The perfect Tense supposes the action completely finished in a time that is not perfectly passed ; as, *I have called on you twice*, that is, *this week*, or, *this day*.\*

\* The perfect tense, and the imperfect tense, both denote a thing that is past ; but the former denotes it in such a manner, that there is still actually remaining some part of the time to slide away, wherein we declare the thing has been done ; whereas the imperfect denotes the thing or action past, in such a manner, that nothing remains of that time wherein it was done. If we speak of the present century, we say, " Philosophers have made great discoveries in the present century ; " but if we speak of the last century, we say, " Philosophers made great discoveries in the century ; " " He has been much afflicted this year ; " " I have this read the king's proclamation ; " " I have heard great news this

16. The Pluperfect Tense speaks of a time that passed before another passed time ; as, *when he had chosen what he wanted, he departed.*

17. The Future Tense speaks of time to come ; as, *I shall or will choose to-morrow.*

18. The second Future Tense represents a future action as completely finished before, a certain future time. Ex. *I shall have read my book before you go.* In this Tense the Participle is often at a distance from its auxiliary ; as, *I shall have my book read before you go.*

19. There are three Participles, the Present, the Perfect, and the Passed.

20. The Present Participle denotes the continuance of action ; as, *culling, choosing.*

21. The Perfect Participle, sometimes called the Passive Participle, represents the action complete and finished ; as, *called, chosen.*

22. The Passed Participle marks the action as finished in a time lately passed ; as, *having called ; having chosen.*

23. In conjugating Verbs we must observe, that when the Verb ends in a consonant (except *x* and *w*) preceded by a single vowel, on which the accent is placed, the last consonant is doubled when a syllable is added to the Verb ; as, *forget, forgetteth, forgetting.*

24. When the Verb ends in *y* after a consonant, the *y* is to be changed into *i*, when the termination alters,

*morning.* In these instances, "*He has been,*" "*I have read,*" and "*heard*" denote things that are past ; but they occurred in this year, in this week, and to-day ; and still there remains a part of this year, week, and day, whereof I speak.

In general, the perfect tense may be applied wherever the action is connected with the present time, by the actual existence, either of the author, or of the work, though it may have been performed many centuries ago ; but if neither the author nor the work now remains, it cannot be used. We may say "*Cicero has written orations ;*" but we cannot say, "*Cicero has written poems ;*" because the orations are in being, but the poems are lost. Speaking of priests in general ; we may say, "*They have in all ages claimed great powers ;*" because the general order of the priesthood still exists : but if we speak of the Druids, or any particular order of priests, which does not now exist, we cannot use this tense. We cannot say, "*The Druid priests have claimed great powers ;*" but must say, "*The Druid priests claimed great powers ;*" because that order is now totally extinct.

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cept in the Present Participle ; as, *to cry, cries,cri-  
h, cried.* Present Participle, *crying.*

25. When the Verb ends in *e*, the *e* is to be omit-  
ed in the present Participle ; as, *love, loving.* From  
his rule are excepted the Verbs *to singe* and *to swinge*,  
which retain the *e* : as, *singeing, swingeing*, that their  
articiples may be distinguished from *singing*, and  
*winging*, the Participles of the Verbs *to sing*, and *to  
wing.*

26. When the Verb ends in *ie*, the *i* is to be chang-  
ed into *y* in the Present Participle ; as, *die, dying, &c.*

27. The conjugation of Verbs is represented in an  
abridged form, consisting of the first persons of the  
present and Imperfect Tenses the Indicative Mood,  
and the Perfect Participle ; as, *love, loved, loved.*  
*Write, wrote, written.* This may be called the a-  
bridged conjugation of a Verb, because it directs us  
in the formation of all the Moods and Tenses, and  
determines the nature of the Verb.

28. AUXILIARY VERBS. Auxiliary Verbs are  
called because they assist in conjugating Verbs. The  
chief Auxiliaries are *to have* and *to be*, which are  
complete Verbs. The other Auxiliaries are, *do, shall,*  
*will, can, must, may*, and *let*, which are Defective Verbs,  
that is, want some of their Moods and Tenses : They  
may be seen in the list of Irregular Verbs. The Verb  
*be* is conjugated in the definitive Conjugation.  
The Verb *to have* is conjugated as follows :

*Have. Had. Had.*

INDICATIVE MODE. Pres. Tense.

Singular. Plural.

*have. We have.*  
*thou hast. Ye or you have.*  
*he, she, or it hath, or has. They have,*

Imperfect Tense.

*had. We had.*  
*thou hadst. Ye or you had.*  
*he had. They had.*

Perfect Tense.

*have had. We have had.*

<i>Thou hast had.</i>	<i>Ye or you have had.</i>
<i>He hath or has had.</i>	<i>They have had.</i>

Pluperfect Tense.

<i>I had had.</i>	<i>We had had.</i>
<i>Thou hadst had.</i>	<i>Ye or you had had.</i>
<i>He had had.</i>	<i>They had had.</i>

First Future Tense.

<i>I shall or will have.</i>	<i>We shall or will have.</i>
<i>Thou shalt or wilt have.</i>	<i>Ye or you shall or will have.</i>
<i>He shall or will have.</i>	<i>They shall or will have.</i>

Second Future Tense.

<i>I shall or will have had.</i>	<i>We shall or will have had.</i>
<i>Thou shalt or wilt have had.</i>	<i>Ye or you shall or will have had.</i>
<i>He shall or will have had.</i>	<i>They shall or will have had.</i>

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

<i>Have or have thou.</i>	<i>Have or have ye or you.</i>
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POTENTIAL MOOD. Pres. Tense.

<i>I must, may, or can have.</i>	<i>We must, may, or can have.</i>
<i>Thou must, mayst, or canst have.</i>	<i>Ye or you must, may, or can have.</i>

<i>He must, may, or can have.</i>	<i>They must, may, or can have.</i>
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Imperfect Tense.

<i>I might, could, should, or would have.</i>	<i>We might, could, should, or would have.</i>
<i>Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst have.</i>	<i>Ye or you might, could, should, or would have.</i>
<i>He might, could, should, or would have.</i>	<i>They might, could, should, or would have.</i>

Perfect Tense.

<i>I must, may, or can have had.</i>	<i>We must, may, or can have had.</i>
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<i>Thou must, mayst, or canst have had.</i>	<i>Ye or you must, may, or can have had.</i>
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<i>He must, may, or can have had.</i>	<i>They must, may, or can have had.</i>
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Pluperfect Tense.

<i>I might, could, should, or would have had.</i>	<i>We might, could, should, or would have had.</i>
---	--

<i>Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst have had.</i>	<i>Ye or you might, could, should, or would have had.</i>
---	---

*He might, could, should, or would have had.*      *They might, could, should, or would have had.*

### INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, *to have.* Perfect Tense, *to have had.*

### PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Participle, *having.* Perfect Participle, *had.*

Pas. Participle, *having had*

The Subjunctive Mood in all Verbs, except in the Present and Imperfect Tenses of the Verb *to be*, is the same as the Indicative or Potential Mood, except that it never changes its termination; as, *If I had; if thou had; if he had; if we had; if ye or you had; if they had.* Or, omitting the Conjunction; *had I; had thou; had he; had we; had ye or you; had they.*

29. REG. and IRREG. VERBS. Regular Verbs are such as form their Imperfect Tense and Perfect Participle, by adding *d* or *ed* to the Present Tense; as, *call, called, called; love, loved, loved.*

30. Irregular Verbs are such as do not form their Imperfect Tense and Perfect Participle, by the addition of *d* or *ed*. Ex. *Am, was, been. Write, wrote, written.*

31. Regular and Irregular Verbs are conjugated so nearly alike, that the same example may serve for both.

The Irregular Verb *to choose*, conjugated in the Indefinite Conjugation:

*Choose, chose, chosen.*

### INDICATIVE MOOD. Pres. Tense.

*I choose or do choose. We choose or do choose.*  
*Thou choosest or dost choose. Ye or you choose or do choose.*  
*He chooses, chooseth, doth or does choose. They choose or do choose.*

Imperfect Tense.

*I chose or did choose. We chose or did choose.*  
*Thou chocest or didst choose. Ye or you chose or did choose.*  
*He chose or did choose. They chose or did choose.*

Perfect Tense.

*I have chosen. We have chosen.*  
*Thou hast chosen. Ye or you have chosen.*  
*He hath or has chosen. They have chosen.*

Pluperfect Tense.

*I had chosen. We had chosen.*



*Thou hadst chosen.*

*Ye or you had chosen.*

*He had chosen.*

*They had chosen.*

First Future Tense.

*I shall or will choose.*

*We shall or will choose.*

*Thou shalt or wilt choose.*

*Ye or you shall or will choose.*

*He shall or will choose.*

*They shall or will choose.*

Second Future Tense.

*I shall or will have chosen.*

*We shall or will have chosen*

*Thou shalt or wilt have chosen.*

*Ye or you shall or will have chosen.*

*He shall or will have chosen.*

*They shall or will have chosen*

IMPERATIVE MOOD.

*Choose or do thou choose. Choose ye or you, or do you choose.*

POTENTIAL MOOD. Pres. Tense.

*I must, may, or can choose.*

*We must, may, or can choose.*

*Thou must, mayst, or canst choose,*

*Ye or you must, may, or can choose.*

*He must, may, or can choose.*

*They must, may, or can choose*

Imperfect Tense.

*I might, could, should, or would choose.*

*We might, could, should, or would choose.*

*Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst choose.*

*Ye or you might, could, should or would choose.*

*He might, could, should, or would choose.*

*They might, could, should, or would choose.*

Perfect Tense.

*I must, may, or can have chosen.*

*We must, may, or can have chosen.*

*Thou must, mayst, or canst have chosen.*

*Ye or you must, may or can have chosen.*

*He must, may, or can have chosen.*

*They must, may, or can have chosen.*

Pluperfect Tense.

*I might, could, should, or would have chosen.*

*We might, could, should, or would have chosen.*

*Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, or wouldst have chosen.*

*Ye or you might, could, should, or would have chosen.*

*He might, could, should, or would have chosen.*

*They might, could, should, or would have chosen.*

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present Tense, *to choose*. Perf. Tense, *to have chosen*.

## PARTICIPLES.

Pres. Participle, *choosing*. Perf. Participles, *chosen*.  
 Pass. Part. *having chosen*.

32. The definite\* conjugation is formed by adding the Present Participle of the Active or Neuter Verb to the Auxiliary Verb *to be*; as, *to be calling*; *to be choosing*. It is called the definite conjugation, because it marks time with greater precision than the Indefinite Conjugation.

The Verb *to choose* conjugated in the definite Conjugation:

## INDICATIVE MOOD. Pres. Tense.

I am choosing.	We are choosing.
Thou art choosing.	Ye or you are choosing.
He, she, or it, is choosing.	They are choosing.

## Imperfect Tense.

I was choosing.	We were, &c.
Thou wast, &c.	Ye or you were, &c.
He was, &c.	They were, &c.

## Perfect Tense.

I have been choosing.	We have been, &c.
Thou hast been, &c.	Ye or you have been, &c.
He hath or has been, &c.	They have been, &c.

## Pluperfect Tense.

I had been choosing.	We had been, &c.
Thou hadst been, &c.	Ye or you had been, &c.
He had been, &c.	They had been, &c.

## First Future Tense.

I shall or will be choosing.	We shall or will be, &c.
Thou shalt or wilt be, &c.	Ye or you shall or will be, &c.
He shall or will be, &c.	They shall or will be, &c.

\* The author is not singular in supposing two Conjugations of Verbs, the Definite and Indefinite; a division, into which English Verbs naturally fall. Mr. Harris, in his *Treatise of Universal Grammar*, has precisely marked this distinction, by dividing time into Definite and Indefinite thus, *I write*; *I am writing*. The former he specifies as an instance of the Indefinite Present Time; the latter as an instance of the Definite. . . . The same distinction has been noted by Bishop Lowth.

## Second Future Tense.

I shall *or* will have been choosing. We shall *or* will have been, &c.

Thou shalt *or* wilt have been, &c. Ye *or* you shall *or* will have been, &c.

He shall *or* will have been, &c. They shall *or* will have been, &c.

## IMPERATIVE MOOD.

Be *or* be thou choosing. Be ye *or* you choosing.

## POTENTIAL MOOD. Pres. Tense.

I must, may, *or* can be choosing. We must, may, *or* can be, &c.

Thou must, mayst, *or* canst be, &c. Ye *or* you must, may, *or* can be, &c.

He must, may *or* can be, &c. They must, may *or* can be, &c.

## Imperfect Tense.

I might, could, should, *or* would be choosing. We might, could, should, *or* would be, &c.

Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, *or* wouldst be, &c. Ye *or* you might, could, should, *or* would be, &c.

He might, could, should, *or* would be, &c. They might, could, should, *or* would be, &c.

## Perfect Tense.

I must, may, *or* can have been choosing. We must, may, *or* can have been, &c.

Thou must, mayst, *or* canst have been, &c. Ye *or* you must, may, *or* can have been, &c.

He must, may, *or* can have been, &c. They must, may, *or* can have been, &c.

## Pluperfect Tense.

I might, could, should, *or* would have been choosing. We might, could, should, *or* would have been, &c.

Thou mightest, couldst, shouldst, *or* wouldst have been, &c. Ye *or* you might, could, should, *or* would have been, &c.

He might, could, should, *or* would have been, &c. They might, could, should, *or* would have been, &c.

## SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD. Pres. Tense.

If I be choosing. If we be, &c.

If thou be, &c. If ye *or* you be, &c.

If he be, &c. If they be, &c.

## Imperfect Tense.

If I were choos<sup>ing</sup>.

If thou wert, &amp;c.

If he were, &amp;c.

If we were, &amp;c.

If ye or you were, &amp;c.

If they were, &amp;c.

## Or omitting the Conjunction.

Were I choos<sup>ing</sup>.

Were thou, &amp;c.

Were he, &amp;c.

Were we, &amp;c.

Were ye or you, &amp;c.

Were they, &amp;c.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

*Pres. T.* to be choos<sup>ing</sup>. *Per. T.* to have been choos<sup>ing</sup>.

## PARTICIPLES.

*Pres. P.* being choos<sup>ing</sup>. *Perfect P.* been choos<sup>ing</sup>.*Pas. P.* having been choos<sup>ing</sup>.

33. The Irregular and Defective Verbs, conjugated in the abridged form, as follows :

Abide, abode.

Am, was, been.

Arise, arose, arisen.

Awake, awaked, awaked,  
awoke.

Bear, bore, borne.

Beat, beat, beaten.

Begin, began, begun.

Beget, begot, begotten.

Behold, beheld, beheld.

Bend, bended, bended,  
bent, bent.

Bereave, bereft, bereft.

Beseech, besought, besought.

Bid, bade, bidden.

Bind, bound, bound.

Beware,\*

Bite, bit, bitten.

Bleed, bled, bled.

Blow, blew, blown.

Break, broke, broken.

Breed, bred, bred.

Bring, brought, brought.

Can, could.

Cast, cast, cast.

Catch, caught, caught.

Chide, chid, chidden.

Choose, chose, chosen.

Cleave, cleft, cleft.

Cling, clung, clung.

Clothe, clothed, clothed,

clad, clad.

Come, came, come.

Cost, cost, cost.

Crow, crew, crowed.

Creep, crept, crept.

Cut, cut, cut.

Dare,† durst, dared.

Deal, dealt, dealt.

Dig, digged, digged,

dug, dug.

Do, did, done.

\* 34. The Verb *to beware* has only the Present Tense of the Infinitive Mood, the Imperative Mood, the First Future of the Indicative, and the Present and Imperfect Tenses of the Potential Mood.

† 35. *To dare* (to venture) forms *durst* in its Imperfect Tense, which does not change in the second person singular. *To dare* (to challenge or defy) is a regular verb; as, *dare, dared, dared*.

Draw, drew, drawn.	Have, had, had.
Dream, dreamt, dreamt.	Hang, ‡ hanged, hanged.
Drive, drove, driven.	hung, hung.
Drink, drank, drunk.	Hew, hewed, hewed.
Dwell, dwelt, dwelt.	hewn.
Eat, ate, eaten.	Hide, hid, hidden.
Fall, fell, fallen.	Hit, hit, hit.
Feed, fed, fed.	Hold, held, held.
Feel, felt, felt.	holden.
Fight, fought, fought.	Hurt, hurt, hurt.
Find, found, found.	Keep, kept, kept.
Flee,* fled, fled.	Knit, knitted, knitted.
Fling, flung, flung.	knit, knit.
Fly,* flew, flown.	Know, knew, known.
Forget, forgot, forgotten.	Lade, laded, laden.
Forake, forlook, forsaken.	Load, loaded, loaden.
Freeze, froze, frozen.	Lead, led, led.
Get, † got, got.	Leave, left, left.
gotten.	Lend, lent, lent.
Gild, gilded, gilded.	Let, let, let.
gilt, gilt.	Light, § lighted, lighted.
Gird, girded, girded.	light, light.
girt, girt.	Lie,    lay, lain.
Give, gave, given.	Lose, lost, lost.
Go, went, gone.	Make, made, made.
Grind, ground, ground.	May, might.
Grow, grew, grown.	Mean, meant, meant.

36. \* The Verb *to fly* ought to be carefully distinguished from the Verb *to flee*, *to run away*; for *a man flies from danger*; but *a bird flies with wings*. It is therefore improper to say, *the bird fled out of the window*, instead of, *the bird flew out of the window*.

37. † The Verb *to get*, when used to signify mere possession, is improper; Ex. *is that a good pen you have got*; it is better thus, *is that a good pen you have*.

38. ‡ The different Imperfect Tenses and Participles of the Verb *to hang*, seem to be used in different significations. Thus we say, *they hanged a man*, or, *a man was hanged to-day*. *He hung up his hat*, or, *his hat was hung up*.

39. § When the Irregular Imperfect Tense and Participle of this Verb are used, they are pronounced short, *lit*. The regular form is pronounced long, and is more used; as, *have they lighted the candles?*

40. || The Neuter Verb *to lie* is often confounded with the Transitive Verb *to lay* (to put on place.) It is very improper to say, *where did you lay last night*, instead of, *where did you lie last night?*

Meet,	met,	met.	Shew,	shewed,	shewn.
Mow,	mowed,	mowed,	Shoe,	shod,	shod.
		mown.	Shall,	should,	
Must*.			Shoot,	shot,	shot.
Ought*.			Shrink,	shrank,	shrank.
Pay,	paid,	paid.		shrank,	
Put,	put,	put.	Shred,	shred,	shred.
Quoth,†	quoth.		Shut,	shut,	shut.
Read,	rêad,	rêad.	Smite,	smote,	smitten.
Rend,	} rent,	rent.	Sing,	sung,	sung.
Rent,				sang,	
Rid,	rid,	rid.	Sink,	sunk,	sunk.
Ride,	rode,*	ridden.	Sit,	sat,	sat.
Ring,	rung,	rung.			sitten.
	rang,		Slay,	flew,	slain.
Rise,	rose,	risen.	Sleep,	slept,	slept.
Rive,	rived,	riven.	Slide,	slid,	slidden.
Run,	ran,	run.	Sling,	slung,	slung.
Saw,	sawed,	sawn.	Slink,	slunk,	slunk.
Say,	said,	said.	Slit,	slitted,	slitted.
See,	saw,	seen.		slit,	slit.
Seek,	sought,	sought.	Sow,	sowed,	sown.
Seethe,	seethed,	sodden.	Speak,	spoke,	spoken.
Sell,	fold,	fold.	Speed,	sped,	sped.
Send,	sent,	sent.	Spend,	spent,	spent.
Set,	set,	set.	Spin,	spun,	spun.
Shake,	shook,	shaken.	Spit,	spat,	spitten.
Shave,	shaved,	shaven.	Split,	splitted,	splitted.
Shear,	shore,	shorn.		split,	split.
Shed,	shed,	shed.	Spread,	spread,	spread.
Shine,	shined,	shined.	Spring,	sprung,	sprung.
	shone,	shone.	Stand,	stood,	stood.
Show,	showed,	shown.	Steal,	stole,	stolen.

41. \* *Must* expresses necessity; *ought* signifies duty. When *ought* is joined to the Present Tense of the Infinitive Mood, it expresses present time; as, *We ought to do so now*; but when joined to the Perfect Tense of the same Mood, it expresses past time; as, *we ought to have done so yesterday*.

42. † The Defective Verb *quoth* has only the first and third persons in both Tenses, and always precedes its Nominative Case; as, *quoth I*; *quoth he*.

# VERBS.

Stick,	stuck,	ituck.	Teach,	taught,	taught.
Sting,	stung,	stung.	Tear,	tore,	torn.
Stink,	stunk,	stunk.	Tell,	told,	told.
Stride,	strode,	stridden.	Think,	thought,	thought.
	frid.		Thrive,	throve,	thriven.
Strike,	struck,	struck.	Throw,	threw,	thrown.
String,	strung,	strung.	Thrust,	thrust,	thrust.
Strive,	strove,	striven.	Tread,	trod,	trodden.
Strew,	strewed,	strewn.	Wear,	wore,	worn.
Strow,	strowed,	strown.	Weave,	wove,	woven.
Swear,	swore,	sworn.	Weep,	wept,	wept.
Sweat,	swetted,	swetted.	Will,	would.	
	swet,	swet.	Win,	won,	won.
Sweep,	swept,	swept.	Wind,	wound,	wound.
Swim,	swam,	swum.	Wring,	wrung,	wrung.
Swing,	swung,	swung.	Write,	wrote,	written.*
Take,	took,	taken.			

Such Regular Verbs as seem improperly contracted in *t*, are omitted in this list. Ex. *blefs, blest, blest. Disperse, disperst, disperst. Distress, distressed, distressed. Pass, past, past. Drop, dropt, dropt, &c.* which seem improperly contracted, for, *blefs, blessed, blessed. Disperse, dispersed, dispersed. Distress, distressed, distressed. Pass, passed, passed. Drop, dropped, dropped, &c.*

## OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

43. AUXILIARY VERBS. The Verb *to have* is always followed by the Perfect Participle of the Verb, as, *I have written, I had arisen, I shall have gone, &c.*

44. This Verb is sometimes improperly used for some of the other Auxiliaries. *I had rather do so*, is improperly said for, *I would rather do so. I had like to fall*, is equally improper when used for *I was like to fall.*

45. The Verb *to be* is always followed by the Per-

\* This is not conceived to be a perfect list of the variations of Irregular Verbs. Neither does any one, perhaps, of the many, which have been published, comprehend all the variety, that is to be found even in good authors. It will comport with the design of this grammar, if those forms only are put down, which are in most common use among our best writers.

fect Participle of Transitive and Neuter Verbs ; as, *It is written ; I was arisen ; he will be driven, &c.*

46. The Verb *to be*, with a few other Neuter Verbs, is followed by the Nominative Case ; as, *I am he ; it was I.*

47. *Who do men say that I am ? Who say ye that I am ?* In these sentences *who* is properly in the Nominative Case, agreeing in case with the Pronoun *I*.

48. But when the Infinitive Mood *to be* follows an Objective Case, it requires an Objective Case after it ; as, *Did you suppose him to be me.* As *him* is in the Objective Case after the Verb *suppose*, the Verb *to be* is followed by the Objective Case *me*.

49. *Whom do they think me to be ? Whom do you suppose me to be ?* In these sentences *whom* is properly in the Objective Case agreeing in Case with *me*.

50. The Present and Imperfect Tenses of the Verb *to be* are often followed by the Present Tense of the Infinitive Mood, denoting a future event ; as, *He is to transact the business. The ship was to sail.*

51. *Do*, and its Imperfect Tense *did*, are borrowed from the complete Verb *to do*, and serve to mark the action or time of the Verb with greater force and precision ; as, *I do assure you it is true. He certainly did die.* They are also used in interrogative and negative sentences ; as, *Do you hear me ? He did not fall.*

52. *Shall* is used to mark a future time, but varies in its signification in the different persons. In the first person it simply foretells ; as, *I shall be wet, if I walk in the rain.* In the second and third persons it promises, commands, or threatens ; as, *He shall be punished. You shall not go, because you are naughty.*

53. *Should*, when it expresses regularly the past time of *shall*, resembles *shall* in the different meanings it takes in the different persons. In the first person it foretells something happening in consequence of a supposition ; as, *Were that to happen, I should be a sufferer.* In the second and third persons it threatens or enforces some command after a supposition ; as, *Were it my pleasure, you should go, and should stay at home.*



54. *Should*, in its other significations, does not seem to change its meaning in the different persons. It is frequently used to denote what ought to be ; as, *Men should be what they seem. We should love our Neighbor as ourselves.*

55. When *should* follows *if*, or any word expressing uncertainty, it signifies that something may possibly happen ; as, *I stayed lest they should offer him violence. I wonder how he should forget me. How should Prospero be living.*

56. The Auxiliary Verb *will* ought to be carefully distinguished from the Regular Verb *to will*, which is a Complete Verb ; as, *will, willed, willed.* It must be owned, however, that these two Verbs on some occasions approach so nearly in signification, that it is difficult to mark the exact boundaries between them.

57. *Will* denotes a future time, but changes in its signification in the different persons. In the first person it denotes inclination ; as, *I will do as I like in this business.* In the second and third persons it simply foretells ; as, *I am afraid you will repent it. He will do himself harm in that affair.*

58. *Would*, when it regularly expresses the Past Time of *will*, differs also in signification in the different persons. In the first person it implies inclination ; as, *I would go, if I could.* In the second and third persons it foretells ; as, *I thought you would not succeed. I suspected he would fall. I wish it would rain.*

59. *Would* frequently occurs in different senses without any regular respect to time, and without any difference of signification in the persons. It is sometimes used as a pathetic form of wishing : as, *Would you were indeed my mother ! Would he had been there !*

60. *Can* and *could* denote power.

61. *May* sometimes expresses liberty ; as, *I may do what I please* ; permission ; as, *You may play* ; a prayer or wish ; as, *Mayst thou, Father of mercies, keep our souls from evil* : or possibility ; as, *It may rain.* The same may be observed of its past time *might*.

62. *Let* in the Imperative Mood is borrowed from

the Complete Verb *to let*. See *must* in the list of Irregular Verbs.

63. The Auxiliary may often stand at a distance from the Participle to which it belongs ; as,

*Twilight grey*

*Had in her sober livery all things clad.*

In this example the Participle *clad* is separated by several intermediate words from its Auxiliary *had*.

64. ACTIVE VERBS. A Verb Active is known by its having an object or Substantive after it ; as, *I love oranges*. Here *love* is an Active Verb, because it has the Substantive *oranges* after it.

65. NEUTER VERBS. Neuter Verbs are known by their not having an object after them ; as, *I sleep ; he travelled*. The Verbs *sleep* and *travelled*, are Neuter Verbs, because they have no object after them.

66. The Perfect Participles of Neuter Verbs are often used as Adjectives ; as, *a fallen tree ; a departed friend* ; and as such are joined to the Verb *to be* ; as, *he is arisen ; they are fallen*.\*

67. Most Neuter Verbs, when a Preposition is added to them, become Active and require an object after them ; as, *he winked at his brother's crimes*. *To wink* is a Verb Neuter, and cannot have an object after it ; but by the addition of the Preposition *at*, it becomes an Active Verb, and requires an object after it. See Prepositions 23, &c.

68. Several Verbs may be used either in a Neuter or Active signification, the construction alone deter-

\* As a proof, that the Perfect Participles of Neuter Verbs are used merely as Adjectives, we may observe, that when there is an Adjective expressing the idea of the Neuter Verb, the Participle of the Neuter Verb is never used after the Verb *to be* as an Adjective. Thus, we say, *he was awake all the time*; when we mean to express the mere circumstance of being awake ; but when we use the Verb in a passive sense, we then employ the Participle, and say, *he was awakened by the noise you made*.

This remark explains an idiom which a celebrated grammarian looks upon as an abuse of language ; for, in the sentence, *you are too much mistaken in this king*, the word *mistaken* is used merely as an Adjective, without any reference to time, and may admit comparison ; as, *you are more mistaken than I am in this king*. When used in a Passive sense, it is followed by an agent ; as, *the affair was mistaken by you*.

mining in what sense they are taken ; as, *Birds separate when affrighted*. Here *separate* is a Neuter Verb because it has no object after it. *He will separate the chaff from the corn*. Here *separate* is an Active Verb, because it has an object after it, which is *chaff*.

69. In the definite form of conjugation, several Active Verbs are often used in a Neuter signification ; as, *A house is building*. Here the Verb *is building* is used in a Neuter signification, as it has no object after it. *He is building a house*. Here *is building* continues an Active Verb, because it has an object after it.

70. In familiar conversation, the article *a* is sometimes used before these Verbs ; as, *the houses are a building*. It is better omitted.

71. Neuter Verbs should never be used in an Active signification. In the sentence, *go, flee thee away into the land of Judah*, the Neuter Verb *flee* is improperly followed by the object *thee*. It ought to be, *go, flee away into the land of Judah*. *To vie charities*, ought to be, *to vie in charities*, because *to vie* is a Neuter Verb. *To agree sacred with profane chronology*, ought to be, *to connect sacred with profane chronology*. *To rise corn*, ought to be, *to raise corn*.

72. NOMINATIVE CASE. Every Verb has its Nominative Case, which is known by asking the question who or what in the Verb. The word answering the question is the Nominative Case. Thus in the sentence, *Samson slew a lion*, we need only ask the question, Who slew a lion ? and the answer is, *Samson*, which is therefore the Nominative Case to the Verb *slew*.

73. The Verb must agree with its Nominative Case in number and person ; as, *I am* ; *am* is the first person singular, agreeing with its Nominative Case *I*. *You were* ; *were* is the second person plural, agreeing with its Nominative Case *you*. *George the Third reigns* ; *reigns* is the third person singular, agreeing with its Nominative Case *George*.

74. Two or more Nominative Cases, united by Conjunctions, require the Verb in the plural number ; as, *Socrates and Plato were wise*. The Verb *were* is

in the plural number, agreeing with its two Nominative Cases *Socrates* and *Plato*.

75. Verbs and Pronouns may be either in the singular or plural number, when they agree with a Noun of Multitude ; as, *The clergy is, or are, a large body of men.*

76. A Noun or a Pronoun, joined to a Participle, and having no Verb to agree with it, becomes a Nominative Case absolute ; as, *Very few of the Roman writers, he excepted, ever made a great progress in philosophy.* As *he* has no Verb agreeing with it, but is joined to the Participle *excepted*, they both form a Nominative Case absolute.

77. Sometimes an Infinitive Mood, or a part of a sentence, serves as Nominative Case to a Verb in the third person singular ; it likewise serves as an Antecedent to a relative ; as, *to murder is a great crime ; to murder* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *is*. *To be discontented in the state we are in, argues a high degree of folly ; to be discontented in the state we are in,* serves as Nominative Case to the Verb *argues*. Such Nominative Cases may in general follow the Verb, if the neuter pronoun *it* be set before the Verb as its Nominative Case. Ex. *It is a great crime to murder. It argues a high degree of folly, to be discontented in the state we are in.*

78. *It* is sometimes used as the Nominative Case to the Present and Imperfect Tenses of the Verb *to be*, to mark an assertion with greater emphasis ; Ex. *It was you that did so,* is a more forcible expression than, *you did so.*\*

79. *It* is used as a Nominative Case to certain Neuter Verbs called Impersonal Verbs ; as, *It thunders. it rains, it freezes.* They are called Impersonal Verbs, because they are used only in the third person singular.†

\* In this example *it* is not a relative, for there is no antecedent either expressed or understood to which it may refer. Use alone, which has determined the propriety of the phrase, has invariably appropriated this Neuter Pronoun to serve as Nominative Case to the Verb *to be*, when employed to give emphasis to a sentence.

† The nature of these Verbs is perhaps the same in all languages. The reason of this seems to be, that in the different phenomena of nature, ex-

80. Impersonal Verbs in general are not so much used, as they were formerly. Instead of saying, *it pleases me, it grieves me, it rejoices me*; we commonly say, *I am pleased, I am grieved, or I grieve, I am rejoiced, or I rejoice.*

81. On some occasions, the Nominative Case may elegantly follow the Verb; as, *Silver and gold have I none, but such as I have give I thee.* The first *I* follows the Verb *have*, to which it is the Nominative Case. The third *I* likewise follows the Verb *give*, to which it is the Nominative Case.

82. The Nominative Case may likewise follow most Neuter Verbs, when the sentence begins with an Adverb; as, *There came a man to town yesterday.* Here *man* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *came*, which it follows, because the sentence begins with the Adverb *there*.

83. When the Nominative Case to the Imperative Mood is expressed, it always follows the Verb. It is generally omitted but is known by the sense, or by some subsequent Pronoun referring to it; as, *Honour thy parents.* *Thy* shews that *thou* is the Nominative Case understood.

84. In interrogations the Nominative Case follows

pressed by these Verbs, we do not distinguish between the agent, which is the thing itself, for example *thunder*, and the manner in which this agent affects our senses. For as languages were formed before men undertook to reason or to inquire into the nature of what they saw, they expressed by the same word the visible agent and its manner of acting, which they always observed united. Hence, if we inquire in Latin or Greek for the Nominative Case to these Verbs, we shall find it expressed in the Verb itself. And as this Nominative Case, when separated from the ideas of time and action, is in the third person as *thunder* or *rain*, we see the reason why these Verbs must always be in the third person. This remark regards only those Verbs, which express the different phenomena of nature; for the other Verbs that put on an impersonal form, have a second Nominative Case expressed or understood in the sentence.

As the English language has appropriated the Neuter Pronoun *it* to supply the place of the Nominative Case on many occasions, so does it likewise before these Impersonal Verbs, *It thunders, it rains, &c.* and we may, agreeably to the genius of our language, suppose it a relative, serving as a Nominative Case to the Verb, and representing the Substantive implied in the Verb. Thus, when we say, *it thunders*, *it* is the Nominative Case to the Verb, and is at the same time a relative, agreeing with the Substantive *thunder*, expressed in the Verb,

the Verb; as, *Seest thou this man? Thou* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *seest*.

85. But when an auxiliary is joined to the Verb, the Nominative Case follows the auxiliary. Ex. *Has he done mischief? He* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *has done*.

86. OBJECTIVE CASE. Active Verbs govern the Objective Case; as, *John saw him. We like him. I love wisdom. Him, them, and wisdom,* are Objective Cases, governed by the Verbs going before them.

87. Some Active Verbs govern two Objective Cases, the one denoted a person, the other a thing; as, *He taught them logic. Them and logic* are Objective Cases after the Verb *taught*.

88. An Active Verb has often an Infinitive Mood, or a phrase after it, instead of an Objective Case; as, *He knows you have been very ill.* The Verb *knows* has after it the phrase *you have been very ill*, instead of an Objective Case.

89. Some Neuter Verbs are followed by an Objective Case, repeating the idea implied in the Verb; thus, *He lived a devout life.* Such Objective Cases may be changed into Adverbs; as, *He lived devoutly.*

90. Though the Objective Case is generally placed after Verbs, it may sometimes be placed before them. Ex. *Him they named as the author.* *Him* is in the Objective Case, governed by the Verb *named*.

91. The Pronouns, *who, whoever, whosoever, &c.* if governed in the Objective Case by a Verb, always stand before the Verb, which governs them; as, *Whom no man hath seen, or can see.* *Whom* is in the Objective Case, governed by the Verb *hath seen*, and *man* is the Nominative Case to the same Verb.

92. When there is a word either before or after the Verb, which may serve as a Nominative Case to the Verb, these Pronouns, are to be in the Objective; as, *The master whom I saw.* As *I* is the Nominative Case to the Verb *saw*, *whom* is in the Objective Case.

93. But when there is no other word, that can be a Nominative Case to the Verb, these Pronouns must be in the Nominative Case; as, *Who called here this*

*morning ? Who is the Nominative Case to the Verb called, because there is no other word in the sentence, that can serve as a Nominative Case to it.*

94. MOODS and TENSES. The present Tense of the Indicative Mood is improperly used when we speak of passed time. Ex. *They, continue with me now three days*, ought to be, *They have continued with me now three days*, because the three days are passed.

95. The Pluperfect Tense of the Indicative Mood may often supply the place of the same Tense in the Potential Mood. We may say either, *He had been Diogenes*, or, *he would have been Diogenes, if he had not been Alexander.*

96. A Verb, following the Future Tense, and expressing a consequence, ought to be in the Present Tense of the Potential Mood, which admits a future signification. The following sentence is therefore faulty ; *Ye will not come to me, that ye might have life.* It ought to be, *Ye will not come to me, that ye may have life.*

97. If the first Verb be in the Imperfect Tense of either the Indicative or Potential Mood, the second Verb ought to be in the same Tense of the Potential Mood ; as, *Ye did not come to me, or, ye would not come to me, that ye might have life.*

98. But if the Verb be in the Perfect Tense of the Indicative Mood, the second Verb may be either in the Imperfect or Perfect Tense of the Potential Mood ; as, *Ye have not come to me that ye might have life, or, Ye have not come to me, that ye may have life.*

99. The Subjunctive Mood always follows words implying uncertainty ; such as, *if, though, whether, whoever, whosoever, whatsoever, &c.* Ex. *Whosoever he be. Whichsoever he choose.*

100. The Infinitive Mood generally follows Verbs, Substantives, and Adjectives ; Ex. *They seem to have acted properly.* *To have acted* is the Infinitive Mood, Perfect Tense, after the Verb *seem*. And in the following example, *to hear* is the Infinitive Mood, Present Tense, after the Verb *delight* :

*What wonder then, if I delight to hear,  
Her dictates from thy mouth.*

101. The sign of the Infinitive Mood is omitted after the Verbs *bid, hear, say, feel, make, need, see, and dare*; as, *I bade him do it*, instead of, *I bade him to do it*. *I dare not do it*, instead of, *I dare not to do it*.

102. The Infinitive Mood is sometimes used in the sense of the Present Tense of the Potential Mood. Ex. *To bring the matter to a speedy issue*, is equivalent to, *That we may bring the matter to a speedy issue*.

103. The Infinitive Mood of Active Verbs is often used in a Nenter signification; as, *They are to blame for so doing*. *I left my books to bind*. Such Infinitives may be expressed perhaps with equal propriety by the Infinitive of the Verb *to be* and the Participle; as, *They are to be blamed for so doing*. *I left my books to be bound*.

104. The Infinitive Mood, when it does not mark a difference of time from the preceding Verb, is to be in the Present Tense; as, *He is better than I expected to find him*. Here the Infinitive Mood *to find* marks the same time with the Verb *expected*.

105. But when the Infinitive is to mark a time, that passed before the time of the first Verb, then the Perfect Tense of the Infinitive is to be used; as, *He appears to have studied grammar in his youth*. *Appears* speaks of present time, but *to have studied* marks past time.

106. PARTICIPLES. Few languages allow so extensive an use of Participles as the English. Our Participles, besides their natural signification and power as Verbs, sometimes put on the form of Substantives, and sometimes of Adjectives; they frequently serve as Nominative and Objective Cases.

107. The Present Participle of Transitive and Nenter Verbs with an Article before it, and the Preposition *of* after it, becomes a Substantive; as, *The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for the gaining of wisdom*. The Participle *gaining*, as it has the Article *the* before it, and *of* after it, becomes a Substantive.



108. But if either *the* or *of* be omitted, we should omit both, and then the Participle continues unchanged ; as, *The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for gaining wisdom.* Here *gaining* is a Participle, as it has not the Article before it, nor of after it.

109. This Participle follows Possessive Pronouns, and Substantives in the Possessive Case ; as, *Much depends upon men's observing the rule, or upon their neglecting it.*

110. This Participle often becomes an Adjective, and as such admits the degrees of comparison. It then denotes the quality of the Substantive without any respect to time ; as, *A loving, a more loving, or, a most loving father.*

111. It may serve as a Nominative or Objective Case ; as, *Riding is a healthy exercise. I like walking.* Here *riding* serves as a Nominative Case before the Verb *is*, and *walking*, as an Objective Case after the Verb *like*.

112. It is often used instead of the Infinitive Mood after Substantives and Adjectives ; as, *The art of writing. Desirous of seeing. Capable of judging.*

113. The Present Participle Passive may serve, as a Nominative or Objective Case ; as, *His being heard gave him great satisfaction.* The Participle *being heard* is Nominative Case to the Verb *gave*. *The people lamented his being executed.* *Being executed* serves as an Objective Case after the Verb *lamented*.

114. This Participle may follow a Pronoun, or Substantive in the Possessive Case ; thus, *Much depends on the rule's being observed, or its being neglected.* *Rule's* and *its* are Possessive Cases, followed by the Participles *being observed*, and *being neglected*.

115. It may follow Substantives and Adjectives ; as, *Ambitious of being seen. The will of being pleased.*

116. The Perfect Participle of Active and Nouter Verbs, when joined to a Substantive to denote a quality or circumstance belonging to it, becomes an Adjective, and admits comparison ; as, *He is a learned,*

*more learned, or, a most learned man.* The Participle *learned* is here used as an Adjective. *He is more read in history than you.* Here the Participle *read* is used as an Adjective in the Comparative degree.

117. This Participle is sometimes improperly omitted by Ellipsis. In the sentence, *I saw the book, and I suppose you have.* The Participle *seen* is understood after the auxiliary *have* : but as it was not expressed before, it ought to be inserted after the auxiliary ; as, *I saw the book, and I suppose you have seen it.*

118. The Past Participle of Active and Neuter Verbs may follow a Substantive or Pronoun in the Possessive Case ; as, *Much depends upon the people's having observed the rule, or upon their having neglected it.*

119. This Participle may serve as a Nominative Case ; as, *His having travelled was a recommendation.* Here, *having travelled* serves as Nominative Case to the Verb *was*.

120. It may likewise serve as an Objective Case ; as, *He repented his having travelled.* Here *having travelled* serves as an Objective Case, after the Verb *repented*.

121. The Past Participle Passive follows Pronouns, and Substantives in the Possessive Case ; as, *He mentioned a man's having been burnt.* *Man's* is the Possessive Case, followed by the Participle *having been burnt*.

122. This Participle may serve as a Nominative Case ; as, *His having been instructed was useful.* *Having been instructed* serves as Nominative Case to the Verb *was*.

123. It may likewise serve as an Objective Case ; as, *He laments his having been robbed.* Here, *having been robbed* serves as an Objective Case after the Verb *laments*.

124. The Present Participle governs the same Case, as the Verb, from which it is derived ; as, *In obeying them you do well.* *Them* is in the Objective Case, governed by the Participle *obeying*.

125. A Participle with an Adverb is often independent on the rest of the sentence ; as, *This, generally speaking, is the case.*

## ADVERBS.

1. **AN ADVERB** is a word added to Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs, to express some quality or circumstance; as, *The fire burns well.* *Well* is an Adverb, joined to the Verb *burns*. *A truly good man.* *Truly* is an Adverb, joined to the Adjective *good*. *He writes very correctly.* *Very* is an Adverb joined to the Adverb *correctly*.

2. Adverbs may be divided into as many kinds, as there are circumstances of an action; Ex. Adverbs of **TIME**; as, *now, lately*. Of **PLACE**; as, *here, there, &c.*

3. **ADVERBS** of quality or manner are generally formed by adding *ly* to Adjectives: as, *Wise, wisely. Just, justly.* &c. When the Adjective ends in *y*, the *y* is changed into *i* to form the Adverb; as, *Happy, happily. Merry, merrily.* &c.

4. Most Adverbs admit comparisons; as,  
*Soon, Sooner or more soon, Soonest or most soon.*  
*Often, Oftener or more often, Oftenest or most often,*  
*Fast, Faster or more fast, Fastest or most fast.*

5. Some are compared irregularly; as,  
*Well, Better, Best,*  
*Badly or ill, Worse, Worst.*  
*Forth, Further, Furthest.*

6. Adverbs of many syllables, and those that end in *ly*, are compared by *more* and *most* only; as,  
*Wisely, More wisely, Most wisely.*  
*Happily, More happily, Most happily.*  
*Splendidly, More splendidly, Most splendidly.*

## OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

7. Several words in the English language are sometimes used as Substantives, sometimes as Adjectives, and sometimes as Adverbs. Ex.

8. *To-day's lesson is more difficult than yesterday's, but to-morrow's will be more so than either.* Here *yesterday, to-morrow*, and *to-day* are Substantives in the P Nominative Case. *He came home yesterday, sets out again to-day, and returns to-morrow.* Here *yesterday, to-day*, and *to-morrow* are Adverbs, joined to Verbs.

9. *Much money has been expended.* Here *much* is an Adjective, joined to the Substantive *money*. *He is much happier than you.* Here *much* is an Adverb, joined to the Adjective *happier*.

10. *Little things are sometimes of consequence.* Here *little* is an Adverb joined to the Verb *thing*.

11. *Less things have produced great effects.* Here *less* is an Adjective. *The English are less volatile, than the French.* Here *less* is an Adverb.

12. *He has the least money, but the most credit.* Here *least* and *most* are Adjectives. *The most learned are the least conceited.* Here *most* and *least* are Adverbs.

13. *This is a better house than yours.* Here *better* is an Adjective. *Your sister works better than I.* Here *better* is an Adverb.

14. Adjectives are sometimes improperly used as Adverbs; as, *He was extreme unwilling*, instead of, *He was extremely unwilling*. *I shall endeavour to live suitable to a man in my station.* *Suitable* ought to be *suitably*, as it is an Adverb, joined to the Verb *to live*.

15. Adverbs usually precede Adjectives and follow Verbs; as, *His stile is very correct.* *He writes well.* But if the Verb has an Auxiliary, the Adverb is generally placed between the Auxiliary and the Verb; as, *You have often deceived me.*

16. Two negatives, when used instead of one, are very improper; Ex. *I can not eat none*; ought to be, *I can eat none*, or, *I cannot eat any*.

17. *Ever* is to be used in preference to *never*, when joined to *so* and *such*; as, *Though it were ever so good.*

18. *Whether or not* is preferable to *whether or no*; as, *Tell me whether you will go or not.* *Not* after *whether* may be omitted; as, *Tell me whether you will go.*

19. Adverbs like Adjectives are followed in the Comparative degree by *than*; as, *He proceeds farther, than he is authorized.*

20. Adverbs in the Superlative Degree are followed by *of* and a Substantive in the plural number; as, *The oak is rooted the most firmly of all trees.* The Adverb *most firmly* is in the Superlative Degree, and is

followed by *of*, and the Substantive *trees* in the plural number.

21. Adverbs and Adjectives in the Comparative and Superlative Degrees admit the Definite Article before them; as, *The sooner he comes. The most powerful of all.*

## PREPOSITIONS.

1. **P**REPOSITIONS are words, prefixed to Nouns, Pronouns, and Participles, to connect them in a sentence.

2. Prepositions are known by their governing the Objective Case; \* as, *To me. For him. With them. Me, him, and them*, are Objective Cases, governed by the Prepositions, *to, for, and with.*†

3. Prepositions are often omitted, and the Noun or Pronoun stands in the Objective Case, without any thing, apparently, to govern it; as, *give me the book*; that is, *give to me the book. He was sick two days*; that is, *during two days. He pitched his camp six miles from the enemy*; that is, *at the distance of six miles.*

4. The principal Prepositions are,

<i>Above.</i>	<i>Before.</i>	<i>By.</i>	<i>Into.</i>	<i>Through.</i>
<i>About.</i>	<i>Behind.</i>	<i>Concerning.</i>	<i>Near.</i>	<i>To.</i>
<i>After.</i>	<i>Below.</i>	<i>Down.</i>	<i>Nigh.</i>	<i>Towards.</i>
<i>Against.</i>	<i>Beneath.</i>	<i>During.</i>	<i>Of.</i>	<i>Up.</i>
<i>Along.</i>	<i>Beside.</i>	<i>Except.</i>	<i>Off.</i>	<i>Upon.</i>
<i>Among.</i>	<i>Besides.</i>	<i>Excepting.</i>	<i>On.</i>	<i>Under.</i>
<i>Amongst.</i>	<i>Between.</i>	<i>For.</i>	<i>Over.</i>	<i>With.</i>
<i>Around.</i>	<i>Betwixt.</i>	<i>From.</i>	<i>Round.</i>	<i>Within.</i>
<i>At.</i>	<i>Beyond.</i>	<i>In.</i>	<i>Since.</i>	<i>Without.</i>

## OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

5. Prepositions are often used as Adverbs. *On seeing my friend*: here *on* is a Preposition, set before the

\* Prepositions are improperly placed before the Adverbs, *whence, thence, thence.*

† The Particle *a* before a Participle, in the phrases *coming, going, walking, shooting, &c.* also before Nouns, as, *abed, aboard, ashore, afoot, &c.* seems to be a true and genuine Preposition, a little disguised by familiar use and quick pronunciation.

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Participle *seeing*. *Pray, come on*: here *on* is an Adverb, joined to the Verb *to come*.

6. *It crept up the wall*; here *up* is a Preposition. *He rose up from his seat*: here *up* is an Adverb.

7. *It flew above the clouds, beneath the sun*: here *above* and *beneath* are Prepositions. *View the Heavens above and the earth beneath*; here *above* and *beneath* are Adverbs.

8. *He ran about the court along the wall*: here *about* and *along* are Prepositions. *He looked about, and then lay along*: here *about* and *along* are Adverbs.

9. *You may grow warm by walking on snow*: here *by* and *on* are Prepositions. *He threw it by when evening came on*: here *by* and *on* are Adverbs.

10. *In* is set before countries, and likewise before cities or large towns, when situated in the country we are in; as, *He lives in France, in London, or in Gloucester*.

11. *At* is set before single houses, villages, and before cities, situated in foreign countries: as, *He lived at Pan's Lodge, at Hackney, or at Paris*.

12. We say *we are disappointed of a thing*, when we cannot get it; and *disappointed in it*, when we have it, and it does not answer our expectations.

13. Such Verbs, as are used either with or without a Preposition, indiscriminately, ought to be used in preference without the preposition; as, *accept*, not *accept of*. *Admit*, not *admit of*. *Approve*, not *approve of*. *Address*, not *address to*. *Attain*, not *attain to*.

14. This preference is particularly eligible in the Passive mode of expression; as, *His present was accepted of by his friend*, is better expressed thus. *His present was accepted by his friend*.

15. Prepositions serve to increase the number of our Verbs by changing their meaning, the same Verb often admitting various significations by having different Prepositions joined to it. Ex. *To give up a project*, is to abandon it; but *to give into a project*, is to undertake it.

16. The Preposition is sometimes prefixed to the

Verb, making but one word with it ; as, *to readmit, to refit, to outdo, to undersell, to undergo, to overrate, &c.* which are Verbs, compounded of the Prepositions, *re, out, under, and over,* prefixed to the Verbs *admit, fit, do, sell, go, and rate.* — N.B. The Prepositions *re, con, pre, mis, &c.* are used only in the composition of words.

17. But the Preposition generally follows the Verb separately ; as, *to give over, to give out, to take off, to pass by, to wink at, &c.* These Verbs may be considered equally with the former as compound Verbs, though the Preposition may stand sometimes at a distance from its Verb.

18. Prepositions should never be placed after the Noun or Pronoun, which they govern ; as, *Whom did the people laugh at ?* It should be, *At whom did the people laugh ?\**

19. On some occasions, the Ellipsis of the Pronoun and Preposition is very improper. The following sentence ; *He lamented the fatal mistake, the world had been so long in using silk worms,* is better expressed thus ; *He lamented the fatal mistake, in which the world had been so long in using silk worms.*

20. Such sentences as the following : *These are pursuits which I was never inclined to at any period of my life ;* are better expressed thus, *These are pursuits, to which I was never inclined at any period of my life.* By this amendment we avoid the inelegance of the Prepositions *to* and *at,* which meet together in the first Example.

21. Substantives and Adjectives, derived from Verbs not followed by a Preposition, generally require the Preposition *of* after them ; thus, *To know a thing ; the knowledge of a thing. To abhor a thing ; the abhorrence of a thing. To censure others ; censurous of others.*

22. But Substantives and Adjectives, derived from Verbs, that are followed by Prepositions, require the

\* The mode of ending the sentence with a Preposition is an idiom to which our language is strongly inclined ; yet it seems to be studiously avoided of late by many respectable authors ; and indeed it is censured by one of our best grammarians.

same Prepositions after them, that follow the Verbs, from which they are formed ; thus, *in compliance with your request* is proper, because we say, *to comply with a request*.

23. Prepositions are invariably joined to the following Verbs and Adjectives, and to the Substantives and Adverbs derived from them, as may be seen in the few examples that follow :

- 24. *To accuse, to acquit, or to convict a person of a crime.*
- 25. *To condescend to. To swerve from.*
- 26. *To derogate from. To detract from.*
- 27. *To devolve authority upon a person.*
- 28. *To die of illness, or of old age.*
- 29. *To die by some calamity or instrument.*
- 30. *To differ from a person in resemblance.*
- 31. *To differ with a person, that is, to quarrel.*
- 32. *To intrust a person with something, or, to intrust something to another.*
- 33. *To lay hold, or, take hold on a thing.*
- 34. *To ingratiate one's self with a person.*
- 35. *To prevail on a person, that is, to persuade.*
- 36. *To prevail over a person, that is, to overcome.*
- 37. *To think of a thing.*
- 38. *To value ourselves upon some good quality.*
- 39. *To value others for some good quality.*
- 40. *Agreeable to, agreeably to.*
- 41. *Averse from a thing. Aversion from a thing.*
- 42. *Conformable to. Conformably to.*
- 43. *Consequent to, or upon.*
- 44. *Consistent with. Consistently with.*
- 45. *Consonant to. Consonantly to.*
- 46. *Conversant with persons, and in things.*

## CONJUNCTIONS.

1. **C**ONJUNCTIONS are words, that shew a connection between two sentences, or that unite in a sentence the different members, of which it is composed.

2. Conjunctions are known, by their connecting words, without having a government of Cases.



3. The principal Conjunctions are,

<i>Albeit.</i>	<i>Even.</i>	<i>Nor.</i>	<i>Thereupon.</i>
<i>Also.</i>	<i>However.</i>	<i>Notwithstanding.</i>	<i>Till, until.</i>
<i>Although.</i>	<i>If.</i>	<i>Or.</i>	<i>(ing.) Unless.</i>
<i>And.</i>	<i>Left.</i>	<i>Otherwise.</i>	<i>Whereas.</i>
<i>As.</i>	<i>Likewise.</i>	<i>Than.</i>	<i>Whereupon.</i>
<i>Because.</i>	<i>Moreover.</i>	<i>Though.</i>	<i>Whether.</i>
<i>But.</i>	<i>Namely.</i>	<i>Therefore.</i>	<i>Yat.</i>
<i>Else.</i>	<i>Nevertheless.</i>		

4. *There is a mean in all things. Even virtue itself has its stated limits.* The Conjunction *even* shews the connection between these two sentences.

5. *You shall have it, as you desire it.* *As* is a Conjunction, connecting the two phrases, *You shall have it* — *you desire it*, and forming them into one sentence. Such Conjunctions may often begin the sentence ; Ex. *As you desire it, you shall have it.*

#### OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

6. Many words, belonging to the other parts of speech, are used as Conjunctions ; particularly, *provided*, a Verb ; *both*, an Adjective ; *either*, *neither*, *that*, Pronouns ; *before*, *since*, and *for*, which are Prepositions.

7. *He provided corn* : here, *provided* is a Verb, agreeing with its Nominative Case *he*. *I forgive, provided you repent* : here, *provided* is a Conjunction, connecting what goes before to what follows.

8. *Both houses are sold* : here, *both* is an Adjective, joined to the Substantive *houses*. *I choose both to hear and see* : here, *both* is a Conjunction, joining with emphasis, the Verb *choose*, to the Verbs *hear* and *see*.

9. *You shall have either horse you like* : here, *either* is a Pronoun Adjective. *He will either stay at home or go out* : here, *either* is a Conjunction, corresponding with *or*.

10. *I choose neither of the horses* : here, *neither* is a Pronoun Adjective. *I will neither give it nor keep it* : here, *neither* is a Conjunction.

11. *Do it before me* : here, *before* is a Preposition. *Do it before I come* : here, *before* is a Conjunction.

12. *That* is a Pronoun, when joined to a Substantive; as, *That book*; or, when it can be changed into *who*, *whom*, or *which*; as, *The man that (or whom) I saw. The horse that (or which) you sold.* But, on all other occasions, it is a Conjunction, serving to connect the different members of a sentence; as, *I was sorry to hear that you were ill.*

13. Conjunctions join the same cases together; as, *He, and she, and I*, not *he, and her, and I.* *It is between him and I*, is therefore faulty, for *I* ought to be in the Objective Case after *and*, because *him* is an Objective Case before it. The Case that ought to follow Conjunctions is best known, by completing the sentence. See Ellipsis 17. 18.

14. Grammarians allow an exception to this rule in the relative *who*, which is used in the Objective Case, after the Conjunction *than*, preceded by a Nominative; as, *He, than whom no man is wiser, has said it.* *He* is in the Nominative Case before *than*, and *whom* is in the Objective Case after it.

15. As Conjunctions always connect words of a like kind, as Substantives to Substantives, Verbs to Verbs, &c. they ought to be placed as near as possible to the words, which they connect. In the following example, the arrangement is erroneous: *Which neither have storehouse nor barn.* As *neither* does not refer to the Verb *have*, but to the Substantive *storehouse*, the sentence ought to run thus; *Which have neither storehouse nor barn.*

16. Conjunctions, when not used singly, correspond to Pronouns, or to other Conjunctions. Ex. *Though* and *although* are followed by *yet* or *nevertheless*; as, *Although she is young, yet she is not handsome.* One of these Conjunctions may be omitted; as, *Though she is young, she is not handsome*; or, *She is young, yet she is not handsome.*

17. *Whether* is followed by *or*. Ex. *Whether you or I.*

18. *Either* by *or*. *Either this book or that.* But in poetry *or* is used for *either*; as,

*Consult the genius of the place in all,  
That tells the waters. or to rise or fall.*

19. *No* and *not* by *nor*. *It is not he nor she.*
20. *Never* by *nor*. *Never see him nor hear of him.*
21. *Neither* by *nor*. *Neither you nor I ought to go.*  
But in poetry *nor* is used for *neither* ; as,  
*But treat the goddess like a modest fair,*  
*Nor over-dress, nor wholly leave her bare.*
22. *As* by *as*. *As white as snow.*
23. *As* by *so*. *As is the priest, so are the people.*
24. *So* by *as* denoting comparison. *Nothing is so beautiful in nature, as truth in the mind.* On this occasion *as* may be followed by an Infinitive Mood. Ex: *It lies so thick, as to produce confusion.*
25. The Pronoun *other* is followed by *than* or *but*. *I saw no other than, or, but him.*
26. *So* by *that*. *I was so tired that I fell asleep.*
27. The Pronoun *such* by *that*. *The noise produced such a shock in my brain, that it dissipated the fumes of sleep.*
28. *Such* by *as*. *Such a history as Hume's.*
29. *As* used singly often implies likeness or comparison. *Be merciful as your father is merciful.*
30. *As* has often the signification of *while* or *when*, *And it came to pass, as he was teaching.* Sometimes it expresses *since* or *because*. Ex. *You shall have it as you like it.*
31. *As*, after the Pronoun *such*, may be said to represent a Relative, and to supply the place of a Nominative or Objective Case. Ex. *Avoid such actions, as are disagreeable. I hate such men, as you describe.*
32. But *as* should never be used in the sense of a Relative, except after *such*. In the following example *as* is very improper ; *The book, as you lent me is lost.* It ought to be, *The book, that, or which, you lent me, is lost.*
33. A Relative should not be used instead of *as* after *so*. The following sentence is faulty ; *There was no man so violent, who did not relent.* It ought to be either, *There was no man so violent as not to relent,* or, *There was no man how violent soever, who did not relent.*
34. The Relative *that* is improperly used instead of

*such before as. Were he truly that scarecrow, as he is commonly painted, ought to be, Were he truly such a scarecrow, as he is commonly painted.*

## INTERJECTIONS.

1. **I** NTERJECTIONS are unconnected words in a sentence, that express some sudden emotion of the mind, and are followed by a note of admiration. Such are, *Oh ! Ah ! Alack ! Alas ! Huzza ! Lo ! &c.*

2. The above-mentioned may be called original Interjections; because they are never used in any other meaning. But many of the other parts of speech, when used to express any sudden passion, may become Interjections. Ex. *Heavens ! horrid ! amazing ! &c.*

### OBSERVATIONS AND RULES OF SYNTAX.

3. Interjections, when prefixed to the first and second Personal Pronouns, seem to have a government of cases, governing the first person in the Objective, and the second in the Nominative Case ; as, *Ah me ! Oh me ! Dear me ! Ah thou wretch !*

## ELLIPSIS.

**E**LLIPSIS is the principal figure of grammar. By it we omit one or more words, that are necessary for the grammatical construction of a sentence, though not for rendering it intelligible. This figure ought to be well understood by those, who learn grammar, for without a knowledge of it, few complex sentences can be parsed.

The use of Ellipsis is to express out thoughts concisely. We should however be so far cautious in using it, as not to obscure the sense of what we say.

EXAMPLES OF ELLIPSIS. 1. A man and woman ; *that is, if we supply the Ellipsis, A man and a woman.* 2. The day and year ; *that is, the day and the year.* 3. A learned and good man, *that is, A learned man and a good man.* 4. The laws of God and man,

*that is*, the laws of God and the laws of man. 5. This is a book of my friend's, *that is*, This is a book of my friend's books. 6. Neither of the families was favorable; *that is*, Neither family of the families was favorable. 7. Each of the men paid his share, *that is*, Each man of the men paid his share. 8. Each of us pays his reckoning, *that is*, Each one of us pays his reckoning. 9. When either of these two qualities is wanting, *that is*, When either quality of these two qualities is wanting. 10. The Kings sat, each upon his throne, *that is*, The Kings sat, each King upon his throne. 11. Neither of the women durst shew her face, *that is*, Neither woman of the women durst shew her face. 12. I love and fear him, *that is*, I love him and I fear him. 13. This is the man they hate, *that is*, This is the man whom they hate. 14. These are the goods they bought, *that is*, These are the goods which they bought. 15. In the posture I lay, *that is*, In the posture in which I lay. 16. It was he the people laughed at, *that is*, It was he whom the people laughed at. 17. You are taller than I, *that is*, You are taller than I am. 18. You read better than she, *that is*, You read better than she reads. 19. Thou shalt return and obey the Lord; *that is*, Thou shalt return and thou shalt obey the Lord. 20. I have heard and seen him; *that is*, I have heard and I have seen him. 21. I have read that author, but you have not, *that is*, I have read that author, but you have not read that author. 22. Speak and act wisely, *that is*, Speak wisely and act wisely. 23. Give me some apples, *that is*, Give to me some apples.—24. He, you, they and I, *that is*, He, and you, and they, and I, 25. He said he would go, *that is*, He said that he would go. 26. Neither friend nor foe has power to hurt me, *that is*, Neither friend has power to hurt me, nor foe has power to hurt me. 27. Either he or she is to come; *that is*, Either he is to come, or she is to come.—28. Either you or he comes to-day; *that is*, Either you come to-day, or he comes to-day. 29. Either he or you come to-day; *that is*, Either he comes to-

day, or you come to-day. 30. Neither he nor I go ; *that is*, Neither he goes nor I go. 31. Neither I nor he goes ; *that is*, Neither I go nor he goes. 32. He is supposed to be rich ; *that is*, He is supposed by the world to be rich. 33. It was thought, that he would not recover ; *that is*, It was thought by his friends, that he would not recover. 34. I saw no other there but he ; *that is*, I saw no other there, but I saw him there. 35. There was no one in the parlour but him ; *that is*, There was no one in the parlour, but he was in the parlour. 36. It is more elegantly expressed by Solomon than him ; *that is*, It is more elegantly expressed by Solomon, than it is expressed by him.— 37. You love her better than I ; *that is*, You love her better than I love her. 38. You love her better than me ; *that is*, You love her better than you love me. 39. This is not such wine as I used to have ; *that is*, This is not such wine as that wine was, which I used to have. 40. They make so deep an impression on the mind, as is apt to bend it wholly one way ; *that is*, They make so deep an impression on the mind, as that the impression is apt to bend it wholly one way. 41. He gave him so much wine, as robbed him of his reason ; *that is*, He gave to him so much wine, as that the wine robbed him of his reason. 42. Who calls ? *answer*, I ; *that is*, I call. 43. Who said so ? *answer*, We ; *that is*, We said so. 44. Who tore the book ? *answer*, They ; *that is*, They tore the book. 45. Who broke the glass ? *answer*, She ; *that is*, She broke the glass. 46. Should I remember ; *that is*, If I should remember.

#### PRACTICAL EXERCISES UPON THE PRINCIPAL RULES OF GRAMMAR.

**S**UCH of the following sentences, as are printed in roman, contain faulty expressions, which are to be corrected by the rules, to which the figures refer. The sentences, printed in italic, serve as additional examples to those rules of grammar, which seem to require further illustration. The figures di-

rect to the paragraphs containing the rules. The examples, followed by *or*, may be expressed both ways with equal propriety.

## ARTICLES.

He is an young man. He was an hero. 5  
 An historian is blameable. An hundred pounds.  
 Such an union. They form a united body. 6  
 I will come in a hour. You have done me a honour.  
 She is a humourfome child. He died without a heir.  
 A hospital was founded by a honest man.  
 ' The safe retreat of health and peace,  
 ' A humble cottage stood.'  
 It is like a tattered colours. He gave me many a thanks. 7

## SUBSTANTIVES.

How many knives are in the case. 10  
 Some Elfs. A number of loafs. Thiefsoften carry staffs.  
 I saw several calfs. Many lifes were lost.  
 The leafs are blown about. I saw three wolfs.  
 They did it themselves. Divide it in halves.  
 Enquirys were made. I saw some ferrys. 11  
 The ladys gathered the cherrys. The citys of Greece.  
 I know some ploughmans and husbandmans. 12  
 Gooses are silly birds. The river is ten foot deep. 13  
 The Kings picture. A calfshead. A childsplay thing. 21  
 The print of calves feet. A ladys fan. Childrens toys.  
 Here are ladies ruffles. A mans hat. Mens hats.  
 A deers skin. He buys deers horns.  
 I bought a scissars and a snuffers. I want a tongs. 30

## PRONOUNS.

Dost thou not perceive, that all will be yours. 13  
 Your memory is good, but thou dost not exercise it.  
 Your sister knows thy perverseness.  
 My book fell into the fire, and he was burnt.  
 I saw but one bird, and I shot her.  
 That house is mine, and he is well built.  
 I lost my cane. Find him for me. Here he is.  
 This pen is bad, she must be mended.  
 I love the friend, which has done me a kindness, tho'  
 she be guilty of faults, whom I dislike. 22

- These are the boys, which were idle.  
 I see the man, which met us yesterday.  
 A nation, who has done honour to literature,  
 The father, which sets bad examples.  
 The person, which I speak of.  
 I like this houses, but dislike that houses. 24  
 I have known him this six years.  
 I do not like these kind of triflers.  
 I never read those sort of books.  
 Listen to no dictates, but to that of truth.  
 I bought this scissars, and that tongs, and that snuffers.  
*More rain falls in June and July, than in December  
 and January, but it makes a greater shew upon the  
 earth in these, than in those months.* 25  
*'In poets as true genius is but rare,  
 'True taste as seldom is the critics' share;  
 'Both must alike from Heaven derive their light,  
 'These born to judge, as well as those to write.'*  
 Give me them books. Observe them three persons. 26  
 Do you know them men. Them are good scissars.  
*Have you seen the man that called, or, &c.* 27  
*The books that you require are lost, or, &c.*  
 He is the same man, whom you saw before.  
 This is the same pen, which I had yesterday.  
 Have you seen the man and horse which I met. 30  
*Envy not others their riches, or, &c.* 32  
 He may have any of my two horses. 33  
 It succeeds better, than in any of the two former cases.  
 I have two canes : he may have any of them.  
 The two Kings sat either of them upon his throne. 34  
 Nadab and Abihu took either of them his censor.  
 Two men, ignorant of one another's language. 35  
 Where two things are compared to one another.  
 Two opinions, consistent with one another.  
 Both their characters are contrasted with one another.  
 The resemblance of any two words to one another.  
 Several governments rivals of each other. 36  
 The people communicate their wants to each other.  
 A variety of soils may be distinguished from each other.  
 The man, that came last week, and who was sick,  
 went away this morning. 38



Men look with an evil eye upon the good, that is in others, and think, that their reputation obscures them. 39

## ADJECTIVES.

He is prettier & happier than I. The loveliest child. 6

The beautifullest flower. The splendidest house. 7

One day. The great ones of the world. 13

He reckoned by tens and by twenties. 14

I will not destroy it for twenty's sake.

The wise and prudent listen to instruction. 15

The virtuous few. The vast immense of space.

Of all the books here, mine has lost fewer leaves. 19

This nation has of all others admitted fewer corruptions

My book has the fewest leaves torn of any book here. 21

He is the tallest of any one here.

This vice enters deepest into the soul of any other. 24

This remedy may prove the surest of any other.

Fame is of all other rewards the greatest.

The most favourable circumstance of all others.

Of the two nations, ours is the more powerful, or, &c. 25

He is a more wiser man than you. 26

It was the most strangest thing I ever saw.

The Duke of Milan, and his more braver daughter.

After the most straitest sect have I lived.

Nothing is more sweeter than liberty

Of all things, virtue is the most loveliest.

Taste, when brought to its most perfect state. 27

The extremest parts of the earth. A most universal cus-

Whosoever of you will be the chiefest. [tom.

## VERBS.

He forgeteth. We are fretting. They begged alms. 23

The child crys. He deny's every thing. He is buryd. 24

Love, loveing. Drive, driveing. Smite, smiteing. 25

The hare is dieing. 26

The bird fled out of the window. 36

The bird is supposed to have fled home directly.

The bird fell, after it had fled a little way.

The country people had flown to the town for safety.

The soldiers flew to their ships for protection.

Is that a good pen you have got. 37

- is room is hanged with very pretty paper. 38  
 hanged his whole house with green paper. . . .  
 man was hung for a robbery. They hung six men.  
 ere did you lay last night? I layed at home. 40  
 ave laid very uncomfortably last night.  
 ere shall we lay to-nigh? He lays at home.  
 ve you laid comfortably last night?  
 him thus prostrate at thy feet I lay.  
 was laying in the sun.  
 ave wrote. I had arose. I shall have went. 43  
 all have drove. You have stole something.  
 e have chose some good books. The hare was catched.  
 ave not drank wine lately. He has fell.  
 e wind has blew the leaves about.  
 ave gave away many of them.  
 u have hid my book behind the harpsichord.  
 ve you saw your brother lately?  
 ey have shewed him how to do it.  
 s he spoke to you about it? He had stole fruit.  
 ad rather do so. I had rather walk than ride. 44  
 ad like to fall. They had like to quarrel.  
 s wrote. I was arose. He will be drove. 45  
 was broke, and blew about by the wind.  
 e coach was drawed by six horses.  
 e was forsook by all her acquaintance.  
 e water is almost froze. The sheep were shorn.  
 e the knives grinded? My hat was soon wore.  
 e house was shook by the wind.  
 ne were smote with the sword.  
 the fruit shall not be stole out of my garden.  
 r book has been took and trod upon.  
 m him. It was me who wrote the letter. 46  
 said it was not him. Is it her that calls?  
 s not me that say so, but it is him.  
 was not her that called, it was him.  
 as it him, that told you this news? Can it be him?  
 e people laughed at him. 67  
 ture revives at the approach of spring. 68  
 is good news revived him.  
 works well. She has worked an apron.

*He shook with fear. He shook his head.*  
*The lottery is drawing. They are drawing the lottery.* 69  
*Something is wanting. They are wanting something.*  
*A church is repairing. He is repairing a church.*  
 Go, flee thee away into the land of Judah. 71  
 They vie charities with one another.  
 To agree sacred with profane chronology.  
 We rise a good deal of corn in England.  
 Last year we rose some onions,  
 No corn is risen in that country.  
 The trees looks naked. All the leaves has fallen. 73  
 Parents governs, and children obeys. Alms is given.  
 Small mistakes becomes great by frequent repetition.  
 Whatever you undertakes be emulous to excel.  
 Boys, that is naughty, neglects their learning.  
 They certainly deserves correction.  
 You attends not to your studies as she do.  
 I wast in town when you was. Thou shall go.  
 Is your friends in town? Is your brothers gone?  
 Was you at home yesterday? My brother have fallen.  
 When you was most in earnest. Amends was made.  
 The ashes looks white. The scissars is lost.  
 You and I was at church yesterday. 74  
 My brother and he disputes about trifles.  
 Virtue and vice differs in their nature.  
 My brother and sister plays together.  
 Is your brother and sister at home?  
 Pride and meanness is inseparable.  
 Innocence and happiness dwells together.  
 Was John and William playing together?  
*The clergy is a large body of men, or, &c.*  
*My people are foolish, they have not known me, or, &c.*  
*Mankind is fond of trifles, or, &c.*  
 Shame being lost, all virtue is lost. 76  
 'God from the Mount of Sinai, whose grey top  
 'Shall tremble, he descending, will himself,  
 'In thunder, lightning, and loud trumpets' sound,  
 'Ordain them laws.'  
 To walk in the fields is pleasant, or, &c. 77  
 It was at the royal feast for Persia won. 78

<i>'Tis these, that early taint the female soul.</i>	
It pleases me. It grieves me. It rejoices me.	80
<i>All these, said he, are yours.</i>	81
<i>Fallen, fallen is Babylon the great city.</i>	82
<i>Great is Diana of the Ephesians.</i>	
<i>Do as I order thee. Honour your parents.</i>	83
<i>What have you there? What says she?</i>	84
<i>Have you seen him? What has he done?</i>	85
We saw you. Do you know she?	86
I like they very well. They fear he, but love I.	
<i>He sees I am not idle. I fear he will hurt himself.</i>	88
<i>The rich he sends away empty.</i>	90
The master who I saw. Whoever you find.	92
The woman who you spoke to is gone. Whosoever	
Who have you seen in the parlour? [you meet.	
Whosoever I observe. Who have you called?	
They continue with me now three days.	94
I remember him these many years.	
He is absent these six months passed.	
Ye will not come to me, that ye might have life.	96
<i>To speak the truth we are not faultless, or, &amp;c.</i>	102
<i>I have a house to build, or, &amp;c.</i>	103
<i>Is there a God to swear by? None to pray to? or, &amp;c.</i>	
He is better, than I expected to have found him.	104
I wished yesterday to have seen you.	
She seems to have had a good education.	105
<i>The middle station of life seems to be the most advantageously situated for the gaining of wisdom. Poverty turn our thoughts too much upon the supplying of our wants, and riches upon the enjoying of our superfluities, or, &amp;c.</i>	107 & 108
<i>Pride is a betraying of a weak mind.</i>	
People dislike the impressing seaman.	
Prepare the way by preaching of repentance.	
I saw the book, and I suppose you have.	117
Take the same measures for your cure that he has.	
I wish he may do as I have.	

## ADVERBS.

He is happily situated. She sings merrily.	3
He was extreme unwilling. Xenophon says express.	14

I live suitable to a man in my station.  
 O let not mine enemies triumph over we ungodly.  
 Grammar teaches us to speak proper.  
 Your sister has done excellent well, you indifferent  
 well, and your brother tolerable well.  
 He behaved conformable to that blessed example.  
 The false assertions of this author are easier detected.  
 I have written agreeable to your desire.  
 I can never think so mean of him.  
 His sermons are exceeding well written.  
 One author speaks nobler and loftier than another.  
 I cannot eat none. I will not do so no more. 16  
 Though it were never so good. 17  
 Though he had never such opportunities.  
 Tell me whether you will go or no. 18  
 The oak is rooted the most firmly of any tree. 20  
 I can throw the farthest of any one here. 21  
 It grows the quickest of any tree in the forest.

PREPOSITIONS.

*It fell off the table over the chair.* 5  
*The dog ran off and went over to you.*  
*It trickled down the wall within doors.*  
*The rain pours down, stay within.*  
 They have disappointed me in the book I wanted. 12  
 I have read it, and am disappointed of it.  
 He accepted of my present. 13  
 We cannot attain to perfection.  
 His present was accepted of by his friend.  
 The magistrates were addressed to by the townsmen.  
 This plan was approved of by the council.  
 Whom shall I give this to. 18  
 Whose crimes did he wink at.  
 He lamented the fatal mistake, the world had been  
 so long in using silk-worms. 19  
 These are pursuits, which I never was inclined to  
 at any period of my life. 20  
 In compliance to the declaration of the parliament. 22  
 He was accused for several crimes. 24  
 We love humility, and condescension for others. 25  
 Swerve not against the commandments of the Lord.

He will think it a derogation of his credit.	26
We accuse fame of detraction against her praise.	
He devolved to the Duke the care of affairs.	27
He died by old age, and not by a fever.	28
The men shall die of the sword ; or of famine.	29
Have courage to lay hold of this occasion.	33
He ingratiated himself to his uncle.	34
Prevail with some judicious friend to hear you.	35
He prevailed against all his enemies.	36
We ought to think well on what we do.	37
That is a thing I never thought on.	
<i>He values himself upon his learning.</i>	38
<i>I value my friend for his sincerity.</i>	39
I have written agreeably with your desire.	40
He was averse from all advice.	41
We are born with an aversion from slavery.	
He acted conformably with his professions.	42
Punishment should be consequent after guilt.	43
A fool is not long consistent to himself.	44
A wise man acts consonantly with reason.	45
<i>He is more conversant in books than with men.</i>	46

## CONJUNCTIONS.

<i>I shall be hurt if I fall, or, &amp;c.</i>	5
<i>A liar is not believed though he speak the truth, or, &amp;c.</i>	
<i>I came since morning. Keep it since you like it.</i>	6
<i>Stay for me. Make haste, for I am tired.</i>	
He and her and I. It was between him and I.	13
She and him and I will read alternately.	
He taught both her and I to read.	
It is among you and they. You sat between her and he.	
He saw him and she together.	
<i>Which when Beelzebub perceived, than whom,</i>	
<i>Satan except, none higher sat.</i>	14
Which neither have storehouse nor barn.	15
Indeed I neither saw him nor her.	
He has neither stirred, or have I spoken.	19
He will give neither the one or the other.	21
Death spares neither age, or youth, or merit, or rank.	
His is so white as snow.	22
This is not near as beautiful as that.	24

I am so tired as I cannot speak.  
 The book as you lent me is lost.  
 The man as I met is a stranger.  
 There was no man so violent, who did not relent.  
 There was no man so brave, who had not some apprehension. [ed.  
 Were he truly that scarecrow, as he is commonly paid.  
 Were he that rogue as you describe him.

ELLIPSIS.

*N.B. To correct the following sentences, see them properly expressed in Ellipsis, as directed by the figures.*

Neither of the families were favourable.  
 Each of the men paid their share.  
 Each of us pay our reckoning.  
 Every one of the rogues were hanged.  
 Every one of them drew their swords.  
 When either of these two qualities are wanting.  
 Neither of the counsellors were to be present.  
 The Kings sat, each upon their throne.  
 Let each esteem others better than themselves.  
 He delivered every drove by themselves.  
 No one ought to neglect their health.  
 Neither of the women durst shew their faces.  
 You are taller than me.  
 You read better than her. They go faster than us.  
 She behaves better than them.  
 Neither friend nor foe have power to hurt me.  
 What the heart or the imagination dictate.  
 Either his gratitude or his compassion were roused.  
 Either he or she are to come.  
 I saw no other there but he.  
 There was no one in the parlour but him.  
 Who calls? *Answer, me.*  
 Who said so? *Answer, us.*  
 Who tore the book? *Answer, them.*  
 Who broke the glass? *Answer, her.*  
*Should I remember, or, &c.*  
*Did I but know his intention, or, &c.*  
*Were I to write, or, &c.*  
*Were thou to be praised undeservedly, or, &c.*

## A SENTENCE PARSED.

*Honour and shame from no condition rise ;*

*Act well your part, there all the honour lies.*

**Honour** A Substantive, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case to the verb *rise*.

**And** A Conjunction connecting the Substantives *honour* and *shame*.

**Shame** A Substantive, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case to the verb *rise*.

**From** A Preposition set before the Substantive *condition*.

**No** An Adjective joined to the Substantive *condition*.

**Condition** A Substantive, singular number, neuter gender.

**Rise** A neuter Verb from the irregular Verb *to rise*. Indicative mood, present tense; third person plural, agreeing with its two nominative cases *honour* and *shame*.

**Act** An active Verb. Imperative Mood, second person plural, agreeing with its nominative case *you* understood.

**Well** An Adverb joined to the verb *act*.

**Your** Possessive case, plural number of the personal pronoun *thou*.

**Part** A Substantive, singular number, neuter gender, objective case after the active verb *act*.

**There** An Adverb of place joined to the verb *lies*.

**All** An Adjective joined to the Substantive *honour*.

**The** The definite Article.

**Honour** A Substantive, singular number, neuter gender, nominative case to the verb *lies*.

**Lies** A neuter Verb, indicative mood, present tense, third person singular, agreeing with its nominative case *honour*.



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## PUNCTUATION.

**PUNCTUATION** is the art of making the several pauses or rests between sentences and the parts of sentences.

The marks or points, used to distinguish sentences and their constituent parts, are

The Comma	,	The Parenthesis	( )
The Semicolon	;	The Dash	—
The Colon	:	The Note of Interrogation	?
The Period	.	The Mark of Admiration	!

As the infinite variety of connection, which subsists in discourse, is to be distinguished by this small number of stops, no precise or absolute quantity of time can be assigned to each of them. In reading it is necessary to relieve the voice and the ear by pauses or small intervals of rest; but the sentiment and connection is expressed, not so much by the comparative length of these pauses, as by the proper modulation or tone of voice in passing them.

### *PRACTICAL RULES.*

1. Three or more words of the same denomination, immediately succeeding one another, and having a common relationship to the same word, are separated by commas.

Ex. Catiline's constitution enabled him to bear fatigue, hunger, cold, and want of sleep, to an incredible degree. His mind was daring, subtle, unsteady, insatiable, and impatient of restraint.

Christianity teaches us to live soberly, righteously, and piously, in the world.

Exercise ferments the humors, casts them into their proper channels, throws off redundances, and assists nature in her operations.

It is our duty to fear, reverence, adore, and obey our maker.

Infinite space, endless numbers, and everlasting duration, fill the mind with great and sublime ideas.

2. Two words of the same denomination, conn-

ed by the conjunction *and*, do not admit a comma between them.

Ex. Modesty and candour distinguish great minds.

The good man pities and relieves the distressed.

3. When a number of words in succession are connected in pairs copulative or disjunctive conjunctions, the couplets or pairs are distinguished by commas; but not the individuals, which form them.

Ex. Sighs and tears, prayers and broken hearts, are the offerings which are paid to them.

In the eclogue there must be nothing rude or vulgar, finical or affected, subtle or abstruse.

4. Two members of a sentence, connected by one of the disjunctive conjunctions *or*, *nor*, *but*, may be separated by commas.

Ex. Virtue is no enemy to pleasure, but its most constant friend.

Command your temper, or it will command you.

The unjust judge neither feared God, nor regarded man.

*Note.* If the latter member be very short, the comma should be omitted.

Ex. No one was in the secret but Lothario.

Libertines call religion bigotry or superstition.

Chance never built a palace nor a cottage.

5. When a comparison is introduced by the terms *like*, *as*, or *than*, the comparative member should be distinguished by a comma.

Ex. It is much wiser to prevent a quarrel, than to revenge one.

Man's days pass away, like a tale, that is told.

Avoid idleness, as the certain parent of guilt and ruin.

*Note.* If the comparative member be short, the comma is omitted.

Ex. The Heavens shall be rolled together as a scroll.

What is sweeter than honey?

6. Nouns in opposition, when the latter is explanatory of the former, or is accompanied with adjuncts, admit a comma between them.

Ex. Hesiod, the Greek poet, lived about the time Homer.

Marcus Tullius Cicero, the celebrated Roman orator, was sacrificed to the implacable resentment of Mark Antony.

7. A noun or pronoun and a participle, forming by their connection the case absolute, should be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Ex. Very few of the Romans, he excepted, ever made any considerable figure in philosophy.

Laws being established, order and tranquility are supported in society.

8. All nouns and pronouns, expressing persons, to whom an address is made, are distinguished by commas.

Ex. Accept, my dear friend, this small token of my affection.

My son, give me thy heart.

There is no terror, Cassius, in thy threats.

9. Several verbs in the infinitive mood, immediately succeeding one another, and having the same connection with one common word, are separated by commas.

Ex. To ravage, to slaughter, to usurp under false titles, they call empire.

To relieve the indigent, to comfort the afflicted, to protect the innocent, to reward the deserving, is a great and godlike employment.

10. The infinitive mood, or a participle, with an adverb, when used absolutely, is separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

Ex. The manners of a court, *to speak plainly*, are but a commerce of flattery and dissimulation.

Craft and dissimulation in youth will, *generally speaking*, produce perfidy in age.

11. An adjective or participle, with a clause depending on it, may be separated from the rest of the sentence by a comma.

Ex. The book of Job is a poem, *full of the noblest and the most sublime figures*.

The standard of Satan is compared to a meteor, *streaming in the air*.

Fear, admitted into public counsel, betrays like reason.

12. A relative pronoun, introducing a new member, requires a comma before it. If this new member be placed in the body of the sentence, it should be distinguished by a comma on both sides.

Ex. Choose that course of life, *for which* nature has formed you.

No man has a thorough taste for prosperity, *to whom* adversity never happened.

That being, who created the world, never intended it for the final abode of man.

Youth, which is the season of vivacity and amusement, should never be destitute of manly improvement.

He, whose countenance never glowed with shame, and whose heart never beat at the sound of praise, is not destined to any honorable distinction.

13. The particle *that*, when used as a conjunction, is properly preceded by a comma.

Ex. It was the opinion of some ancient philosophers, *that* the souls of wicked men after death were compelled to animate the bodies of brutes.

Many have asserted, *that* the poems of Ossian are productions of modern date.

14. A comma should be inserted, where the sentence is divided into two considerable branches by a connective particle.

Ex. Fashion is the plague of wise men, and the idol of fools.

As virtue is its own reward, so vice is its own punishment.

The temperate man's pleasures are durable, because they are regular.

15. A member of a sentence, not necessary to the sense or grammatical construction, but introduced by way of parenthesis between the nominative case and the verb, or between the verb and the objective case, may be separated from the rest of the sentence by commas.

**Ex.** Excessive fondness for amusements, of whatever kind they may be, indicates a weak and frivolous mind.

A man of letters never experiences, like other men, the plague of idleness.

16. A comma may be properly placed before a preposition, when the sentence is long enough to require a pause, and the member, following the preposition, is an important one.

**Ex.** Party is the madness of many, for the gain of a few.

Youth often lay the foundation of lasting evil, by delivering themselves up to giddiness and levity.

A curious question has been agitated, with regard to the comparative perfection of ancient and modern writers.

17. The connective particles, *and*, *if*, *that*, and some others, when they connect a subsequent member of a sentence with a preceding one, which subsequent member is placed at a distance, by the intervention of a parenthetical sentence, or some member equivalent to it, should be distinguished on both sides by a point.

**Ex.** The love of praise is a natural passion, and, in many respects, a useful principle of action.

Unbounded wealth will not be eagerly pursued by a wise man, if, as has often been asserted, it be attended with anxiety and temptation.

Simplicity of style possesses this considerable advantage, that, like simplicity of manners, it shows a man's sentiments and turn of mind without disguise.

No author is more dangerous to the tribe of imitators than Lord Shaftsbury, who, amidst many dazzling and imposing beauties, has several considerable blemishes.

### SEMICOLON.

1. A member of a sentence, which requires a greater pause than a comma, yet does not of itself make a complete sentence, but is followed by something closely depending on it, should be distinguished by a semicolon.

Ex. Virtue is the highest exercise and improvement of reason ; the connection, harmony, and just balance of the passions ; the health, strength, and beauty of the mind.

A studied civility assumes the name without the pleasures of friendship ; and secret animosity and envy are often concealed under the caresses of dissimulated affection.

2. Sentences, in which there are conjunctions, expressing an inference or an opposition ; also when the parts of the general sentence require a distinct contemplation, or are contrasted with each other, may be divided by a semicolon.

Ex. The prodigal robs his heir ; but the miser robs himself.

True modesty is ashamed of every thing, that is criminal ; false modesty of every thing, that is unfashionable.

In taking revenge a man is only even with his enemy ; but in forgiving the offence, he is superior to him.

3. Although every sentence, which of itself is complete in sense and construction may be marked by a period ; yet when several short sentences follow one another in close succession, and seem to be parts of one general proposition, the period may be omitted and the semicolon used in its stead.

Ex. A brute arrives at a point of perfection, which he cannot pass ; in a few years he has all the endowments, of which he is capable ; and were he to live ten thousand more, would be the same thing he is at present.

The pride of wealth is contemptible ; the pride of learning is pitiable ; the pride of dignity and rank is ridiculous ; but the pride of bigotry is insupportable.

#### COLON.

1. When the preceding sentence is complete in its construction, but is followed by an additional remark, making a more full and perfect sense, the colon may be used.\*

\* It may appear unphilosophical to complain of the fewness of the points, and at the same time attempt to reject one of them. But it may

# PUNCTUATION.

Ex. There is no real use of riches, except in distribution : the rest is all conceit.

Were all books reduced to their quintessence, many a bulky author would make his appearance in penny paper : there would be scarcely any such thing as a folio : the works of an age would be contained on a few shelves ; not to mention millions of volumes, which would be utterly annihilated.

2. A colon is generally used, when an example quotation is introduced.

Ex. Always remember this maxim : Know thyself. Then the Lord answered Job out of the whirlwind, and said : Who is this, that darkeneth counsel by words without knowledge?\*

3. Important adverbs, as, *further. moreover, besides, against, first, secondly, &c.* also the phrases, *fine, on the whole, on the contrary, to conclude*, and similar expressions at the beginning of a sentence may be distinguished by a colon.†

## PERIOD.

When a sentence is so far finished, as not to

be queried, if the rules of punctuation leaves it, as in many instances do, to the taste and discretion of the writer to use, either a semicolon or a period, whether there be any necessary intermediate space for the colon. Whether an instance ever occurs, in which it is absolutely necessary to use any other point than the colon. If not, why should the business of punctuation be unnecessarily embarrassed?

As long however, as the colon is retained, its place is, perhaps, properly assigned by the rules here given ; particularly the 2d and 3d ; but in other instances, it should be used with caution by young writers.

\* This, with almost innumerable instances of the kind in the sacred writings, is an example of the quotation, and ought to have been pointed as such. The rule is founded in nature. A transition from one topic to another, occasions a very considerable disconnection, and should be distinguished by a greater pause or cadence than a comma.

† It ought to be a principle in punctuation, and in reading to distinguish, as much as possible, from the main body of a sentence, the few and less emphatical parts, that the attention of the reader and hearer be directed principally to those, which are more important. The expressions, *first, secondly, in fine, on the whole, &c.* though usually distinguished by a comma, show but a distant connection between the larger branch divisions of a subject, and seem to stand almost equally remote from preceding and subsequent branch. By this mode of punctuation the sentence is disincumbered of a weak member, necessary only to show the connection, and in reading may be more clearly and emphatically pronounced.

connected in sense or construction with any other, it may be marked by a period.

### PARENTHESIS.

The parenthesis includes in the body of a sentence some member, which is not necessary to the sense nor construction. It marks a moderate depression of voice, with a pause somewhat longer than a comma; and should be passed over rather more rapidly, than the main body of the sentence.

Ex. In the instance alluded to, you were guilty (pardon me the expression) of very great rudeness.

The man, who first transplanted the grape of Burgundy to the Cape of Good Hope (observe he was a Dutchman) never dreamt of drinking the same wine at the Cape, that the same grape produces on the French Mountains.

The parenthesis destroys the unity of a sentence, and, therefore, it seems to be studiously avoided of late by our best writers. In grave compositions it is hardly admissible; but in familiar epistles, where the precise rules for constructing sentences are not so rigidly observed, a sprightly thought may sometimes be thrown into a parenthesis, and the effect not be unpleasant.

### DASH.

The dash has been too often used by hasty, incoherent writers, instead of the regular points. The only proper use of it is, where the sentence breaks off abruptly; where there is an unexpected turn in the sentiment; or where a very long pause is required.

Ex. Here lies the great—false marble, where? Nothing but sordid dust—lies here.

Hold up thy hand, make signal of that hope.— He dies, and makes no sign.

### INTERROGATION.

The mark of interrogation should be placed at the end of all sentences, in which a question is asked. In reading it marks an elevation of voice at the end of the question, unless the sentence begin with an interrogative word; and requires a pause, most commonly somewhat longer than a period.



**Ex.** Can a miser be rich ?

Who created man and appointed him his habitation ?

How is he to be distinguished in manhood, whose youth has been wasted in indolence and folly ?

*Note.* The mark of interrogation is improperly used when it is only asserted, that a question was asked.

**Ex.** Ask some learned philosopher, why the sun is nearer to us in winter than in summer.

Your friend enquired, who was the author of that publication.

### **ADMIRATION.**

Sentences, in which wonder, astonishment, or any violent passion or emotion of mind is expressed, are distinguished by the mark of Admiration.

**Ex.** Sir ! your conduct astonishes me !

How wonderful, how complicate is man !

How passing wonder he, who made him such !

### **CAPITAL LETTERS.**

A capital letter should never be written in the middle of a word ; but only at the beginning, and according to the following rules.

1. At the beginning of any book, note, epistle, bill, or any kind of writing whatever.

2. The first word after a period ; also after the mark of interrogation and admiration, if the two sentences are not very closely connected.

3. All titles and professions, all proper names of persons and places.

4. All sacred appellations : as, God, Jehovah, Almighty, Trinity, Providence, &c.

5. At the beginning of every line in poetry.

6. The first word of a quotation, though not preceded by a full stop.

7. The pronoun I, and interjection O, are always capitals.

8. Any word, used very emphatically, may be wholly written in capitals.

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A  
CONCISE TREATISE  
OF  
R H E T O R I C.

1. **G**RAMMAR teaches the proper arrangement and connection of words, and shews how they are united in a sentence. Rhetoric is more concerned in the general meaning and import of a sentence, than in the words composing it. When we speak the language of passion, or of a warm imagination, we depart from the sober stile of conversation, and adopt bolder and more animated expressions. These expressions of passion, which faithfully transmit to others, the emotions we feel, and which are originally taught by nature alone, have been collected by Rhetoricians and formed into a System. This System we call Rhetoric.

2. Rhetoric therefore teaches us to distinguish the different modes of speech, by which energy of passion, or warmth of imagination is peculiarly expressed, and to class them under the denominations of tropes and figures. These denominations are distinguished from each other by Rhetoricians, who in their divisions of this science have descended to a minuteness, which can be desirable only to the Critic. As our plan is confined to what may be of use to the young beginner, we shall entirely omit the distinction between tropes and figures, as the latter term fully answers the purposes of both ; and shall describe only such Rhetorical figures, as may be easily remembered by the young scholar. Those, who are desirous of a more extensive knowledge of this science, may consult Dr. Blair's lectures on Rhetoric, or Mr. Walker's Rhetorical grammar.

3. The principal figures of Rhetoric are, SIMILE, METAPHOR, ALLEGORY, IRONY, HYPERBOLE, ANTITHESIS, CLIMAX, VISION, PERSONIFICATION, APOSTROPHE, INTERROGATION, EXCLAMATION, and AMPLIFICATION.

### SIMILE.

1. A Simile or Comparison is a figure, by which we compare one thing to another for the sake of ornament or illustration.

2. In the following Simile, a virtuous man slandered, is compared to a diamond, obscured by smoke, and the circumstances of the resemblance are pointed out : *A virtuous man slandered by evil tongues is like a diamond obscured by smoke ; which is clouded for the present, but when wiped and cleared from stain is as beautiful as before.*

3. Milton compares the fallen angels to oaks or pines blasted by lightning :

‘ Faithful how they (*fallen angels*) stood,  
 ‘ Their glory withered ; as when heaven’s fire  
 ‘ Hath scathed the forest-oakes or mountain pines ;  
 ‘ With singed top their stately growth, though bare,  
 ‘ Stands on the blasted heath.’

4. The same poet compares Satan, in his superiority over the other fallen angels, to a tower. He afterwards compares him in his degraded and ruined state, to the Sun obscured by a mist or eclipsed by the Moon :

‘ He (*Satan*) above the rest  
 ‘ In shape and gesture proudly eminent,  
 ‘ Stood like a tower ; his form had not yet lost  
 ‘ All her original brightness, nor appeared  
 ‘ Less than Arch-angel ruined, and th’ excess  
 ‘ Of glory obscured ; as when the Sun new risen,  
 ‘ Looks through the horizontal misty air,  
 ‘ Shorn of his beams ; or from behind the Moon  
 ‘ In dim eclipse disastrous twilight sheds  
 ‘ On half the nations, and with fear of change  
 ‘ Perplexes Monarchs ; darkened so, yet shone  
 ‘ Above them all the Arch-angel.’

5. The flattering hopes we form of futurity are compared to our visible horizon ; which, whatever way we turn and how far soever we go, still keeps at the same distance from us :

‘ But I, not destined such delights to share,  
 ‘ My prime of life in wandering spend and care !  
 ‘ Impelled with steps, unceasing to pursue,  
 ‘ Some fleeting good, that mocks me with the view ;  
 ‘ That, like the circle bounding earth and skies,  
 ‘ Allures from far, yet, as I follow, flies.’ *GOLDSMITH.*

6. Pope compares the increasing fame of the antient poets to rivers which increase as they approach the sea:

‘ Hail bards triumphant ! born in happier days,  
 ‘ Immortal heirs of universal praise ;  
 ‘ Whose honors with increase of ages grow,  
 ‘ As streams roll down enlarging as they flow.’

7. A pious mind agitated with doubts, is compared to a calm lake disturbed by a stone thrown into it :

‘ A life so sacred, such serene repose,  
 ‘ Seemed heaven itself till one suggestion rose,  
 ‘ That vice should triumph, virtue vice obey ;  
 ‘ This sprung some doubt of providence’s sway !  
 ‘ So when a smooth expanse receives impress,  
 ‘ Calm nature’s image on its watry breast,  
 ‘ Down bend the banks, the trees depending grow,  
 ‘ And skies beneath with answering colours glow ;  
 ‘ But if a stone the gentle sea divide,  
 ‘ Swift ruffling circles curl on every side ;  
 ‘ And glimmering fragments of a broken sun,  
 ‘ Banks, trees, and skies, in thick disorder run.’

*PARNEL.*

### METAPHOR.

1. A metaphor is a comparison expressed without the signs of comparison. When we say of a great Minister, that *he upholds the State like a pillar supporting an edifice*, we use a comparison : but when we say of such a Minister, that *he is the pillar of the State*, we speak in a metaphor and *pillar* is the metaphorical word.

2. When we say, *Charles the twelfth was the lion of*

*the North*, we speak metaphorically and call him a lion, because he resembled a lion in bravery.

3. In the following lines life is called a stream, because like a stream it is for ever passing ; and it is said to abound in tempests, because our lives are ruffled with misfortunes as water is by a tempest :

‘ A troop came next, who crowns and armour wore,  
‘ And proud defiance in their looks they bore ;  
‘ For the, (*Fame*) they cried, amidst alarms and strife,  
‘ We failed in tempests down the stream of life.’

POPE.

4. In the following examples the metaphorical words are marked : *To the faithful, death is the gate of life.—She was covered with the light of beauty ; but her heart was the house of pride.—Young men are subtle arguers ; the cloak of honour covers all their faults.—Men’s evil manners live in brass ; their virtues we write in water.*

5. ————— ‘ Think, that time  
‘ Has golden minutes, if discreetly seized.’ THOMPSON.

6. ‘ Perhaps even Britain’s utmost shore,  
‘ Shall cease to blush, with strangers’ gore.’ POPE,

7. ‘ For never can true reconciliation grow,  
‘ Where wounds of deadly hate have pierced so deep.’

MILTON.

8. ‘ Now waved their fiery swords, and in the air  
‘ Made horrid circles : two broad suns their shields  
‘ Blazed opposite.’

MILTON.

9. ‘ Together both, ere the high lawns appeared  
‘ Under the opening eye-lids of the morn,  
‘ We drove a field.’

MILTON.

10. But the word Metaphor is sometimes used in a looser and more extended sense, than is allowed by the definition given above. It may often mean the application of a term in any figurative signification ; whether the figure be founded on resemblance or some other relation, which two objects have to each other. For instance, when we say, *his grey hairs were brought with sorrow to the grave*, the words *grey hairs* are used metaphorically instead of old age. And when

We say, *I have lived forty summers*, we metaphorical-ly use summers instead of years, because a summer is part of a year. Of this kind also are such Metaphors, as *Mars rages*, instead of *war rages*: read *for* *force*, for read the works of *Horace*: *An orator's tongue* (Eloquence) is a *strong defence*: *Steel* (the sword) *overturned the walls of Troy*. We say, *cold death*, because death makes cold: and *he seized the sceptre* that is, the government, because the *sceptre* represents royal power. *The bottle enlivens*, that is, the wine contained in the bottle. In this sense the figures called *Metonymy* and *Synecdoche* are comprehended in the class of Metaphors. A further example of each follows:

11. 'Unless you mean my griefs and killing fears  
Should stretch me out at your relentless feet.' POPE.

In this example of the synecdoche, the feet, a part of the person, are put for the whole person.

12. 'Again Ulysses veiled his pensive head,  
Again unmanned, a shower of sorrow shed.' POPE.

In this example of the metonymy, sorrow, which is the cause of tears, is put for tears.

### ALLEGORY.

1. An allegory is a continuation of several metaphors, so connected in sense as to form a kind of *parable* or *fable*.

2. We have a very fine allegory in the 80th psalm, where the people of Israel are represented under the image of a vine: *Thou hast brought a vine out of Egypt, thou hast cast out the heathen, and planted it, thou preparedst room before it, and didst cause it to take deep root, and it filled the land. The hills were covered with the shadow of it, and the boughs thereof were the goodly cedars. She sent out her boughs into the sea, and her branches into the river. Why hast thou broken down her hedges, so that all they who pass by the way, do pluck her? The bear out of the wood doth tear it; and the wild beast of the field doth devour it. Turn, we beseech thee, O God of hosts, look down from heaven, and behold and visit this vine.*

3. In the following allegory the different ages of

life are pointed out by the different seasons of the year :

‘ Behold fond man !

- ‘ See here thy pictured life ; pass some few years,
- ‘ Thy flowering *spring*, thy *summer*’s ardent strength,
- ‘ Thy sober *autumn* fading into age :
- ‘ And pale concluding *winter* comes at last,
- ‘ And shuts the scene.’

THOMPSON.

4. In the following allegory life is compared to a voyage :

- ‘ Thus, thus I steer my bark, and sail
- ‘ On even keel with gentle gale ;
- ‘ At helm I make my reason sit,
- ‘ My crew of passions all submit.
- ‘ If dark and blustering prove some nights,
- ‘ Philosophy puts forth her lights ;
- ‘ Experience holds the cautious glass,
- ‘ To shun the breakers as I pass ;
- ‘ And frequent throws the wary lead,
- ‘ To see what dangers may be hid.
- ‘ Though pleased to see the dolphins play,
- ‘ I mind my compass and my way.’

5. In the following allegory, taken from fables for the female sex, a woman, who has deviated from the paths of honor, is imaged by a bark, which, having departed from its destined course, is caught in a tempestuous ocean, where it founders :

- ‘ But woman no redemption knows ;
- ‘ The wounds of honour never close.
- ‘ Tho’ distant every hand to guide,
- ‘ Nor skilled in life’s tempestuous tide,
- ‘ If once her feeble bark recede,
- ‘ Or deviate from the course decreed,
- ‘ In vain she seeks the friendly shore,
- ‘ Her swifter folly flies before ;
- ‘ The circling ports against her close,
- ‘ And shut the wanderer from repose ;
- ‘ Till, by conflicting waves oppressed,
- ‘ Her foundering pinnace sinks to rest.’

6. A female orphan, relieved from distress and ed-

educated with tenderness, but afterwards seduced from the paths of virtue, is thus allegorically described as a flower :

‘ You took her up a little, tender flower,  
 ‘ Just sprouted on a bank, which the next frost,  
 ‘ Had nipped ; and with a careful, loving hand,  
 ‘ Transplanted her into your own fair garden,  
 ‘ Where the sun always shines: there long she flourished,  
 ‘ Grew sweet to sense, and lovely to the eye ;  
 ‘ Till at last a cruel spoiler came,  
 ‘ Cropt this fair rose, and rifled all its sweetness,  
 ‘ Then cast it like a loathsome weed away.’

ORPHAN, *Act. 4.*

7. Allegories were a favorite method of delivering instruction in antient times ; for what we call fables or parables are no other than allegories ; where by words and actions attributed to beasts or inanimate objects, the dispositions of men are figured ; and what we call the moral, is the unfigured sense or meaning of the allegory. An enigma or riddle is also a species of allegory ; one thing represented or imaged by another, but purposely wrapped up under so many circumstances as to be rendered obscure. In the spectator we have examples of allegories very happily executed.

### IRONY.

1. Irony is a figure, in which one extreme is signified by its opposite ; or where we speak of one thing and design the contrary, in order to give the greater force and poignancy to our meaning.

2. This figure owes much of its force to the voice and manner of the speaker. When we commend, ironically, a notorious cheat, we say sneeringly of him, *O he is a mighty honest man truly !* This figure is more adapted to conversation or burlesque writings, than to compositions of a serious nature.

### HYPERBOLE.

1. Hyperbole or exaggeration, in order to give us the highest idea of an object, magnifies it beyond its natural dimensions.

2. For instance, when the poet wishes to impress



us with a very high idea of his hero's swiftness, he says : *Achilles was swifter than a stag.* This sentence is not to be considered as strictly true ; we are only to understand from it, that Achilles was uncommonly swift. We must consider the following examples, in some of which the hyperbolic terms are distinguished by the print, as entitled to the same indulgence : *Her complexion was fairer than snow ; though her hair was blacker than a raven.*

3. ' On either side two rocks enormous rise,  
' Whose summits threaten to *invade the skies.*' POPE.

4. In Pope's Temple of Fame conquerors are supposed to address the Goddesses as follows :

' For thee, whole nations filled with flames and blood,  
' And swam to empire through the purple flood.'

5. Eloisa in the following lines enjoins Abelard to keep at a distance from her :

' No, fly me, fly me, far as pole from pole ;  
' Rise Alps between us, and whole oceans roll.' POPE.

6. The effects of music are thus described :  
' Here Orpheus sings ; trees moving to the sound  
' Start from their roots, and form a shade around.'  
POPE.

7. The powerful effects of poetry are thus described :  
' The poet gives my breast a thousand fears,  
' Can make me feel each passion that he feigns ;  
' Enrage, compose, with more than magic art,  
' With pity and with terror tear my heart ;  
' And snatch me o'er the earth or through the air,  
' To Thebes, to Athens, when he will and where.'

8. ' So Zembla's rocks, the beauteous work of frost,  
' Rise white in air, and glitter o'er the coast ;  
' Pale suns, unfelt, at distance roll away,  
' And on th' impassive ice the lightnings play ;  
' Eternal snows the growing mass supply,  
' Till the bright mountains prop the incumbent sky.'  
POPE.

## ANTITHESIS.

1. Antithesis is the contrast or opposition of two objects in a sentence.

2. In the following example the heavens, the moon, and stars, are set in opposition to man. *When I consider the heavens, the work of thy fingers, the moon and the stars, which thou hast ordained, What is man, that thou art mindful of him, and the son of man, that thou visitest him?*

3. In the following passages the words *increase his stores*, are set in opposition to the words *diminish his desires*: *If you seek to make a man rich, study not so much to increase his stores, as to diminish his desires.*

4. 'Who sees with equal eye, as God of all,  
' A hero perish, or a sparrow fall;  
' Atoms or systems into ruin hurl'd,  
' And now a bubble burst, and now a world.' POPE.

In this passage a sparrow, atoms, and bubble are contrasted with hero, systems, and world.

5. 'This knows my punisher; therefore as far  
' From granting he, as I from begging peace.' MILTON.

6. 'So spake the seraph Abdiel, faithful found;  
' Among the faithless, faithful only he.' MILTON.

7. 'Good-nature and good sense must ever join;  
' To err is human; to forgive, divine.' POPE.

8. This figure often surprises us by the unexpected contrast of contradictory ideas, which it aptly brings together; such are, *salutary wounds; healthful diseases; happy pains; profitable losses; bitter sweets and regular confusion*. Such are likewise the following examples, in some of which the contrasts are remarkably bold.

9. *The very sorrows of a pious man are pleasant, his infirmities are wholesome, his wants enrich him, and his disgraces adorn him.*

10. 'Give man earth's empire (if no more)  
' He's beggared and undone;  
' Imprisoned in unbounded space,  
' Benighted by the sun.' WATTS.

In this stanza the empire of the world, unbounded space, and the sun, are set in opposition to ruin, imprisonment, and darkness.

11. In the following example Adam supposes sol-

itude the best society, because it disposes us to enjoy society :

‘ If much converse perhaps  
‘ Thee fatiate, to short absence I could yield :  
‘ For solitude is sometimes best society,  
‘ And short retirement urges sweet return.’ *MILTON.*

12. ‘ I understood not that a grateful mind,  
‘ By owing owes not, but still pays ; at once  
‘ Indebted and discharged.’ *MILTON.*

13. ‘ But see the man, who spacious regions gave,  
‘ A waste for beasts, himself denied a grave ;  
‘ Stretched on the land his second hope survey  
‘ At once the chaser, and at once the prey.’ *POPE.*

William the conqueror dispeopled a large tract of country which he converted into forest land. He was buried in Normandy. His second son William Rufus was accidentally shot through the heart, as he was hunting in the forest inclosed by his father, and is therefore in these lines called the chaser and the prey.

### CLIMAX.

1. Climax or gradation is a figure by which we rise from one circumstance to another, till our idea is raised to the highest.

2. We have an example of this figure in the following sentence, where the gradation begins with the infant and ends with the christian: *What is every year of a wise man's life, but a censure or critic on the past ? Those, whose date is the shortest, live long enough to laugh at one half of it : the boy despises the infant, the man the boy, the philosopher both, and the christian all.*

3. *There is no enjoyment of property without government, no government without a magistrate, no magistrate without obedience, and no obedience where every one acts as he pleases.* In this climax the several steps rise naturally out of one another, and are closely connected by the sense.

### VISION.

1. Vision is a figure by which, in the warmth of emotion, we describe a thing as present that is past, or that we suppose might have happened.

2. Cicero in his speech against Catiline represents as present the destruction, that would have ensued, had Catiline and the other conspirators succeeded in their design of setting fire to the city of Rome: *I think I behold this city, the ornament of the earth, and the capital of all nations, suddenly involved in one conflagration. I see before me heaps of slaughtered citizens, lying unburied in the midst of their ruined country. The furious countenance of Cethegus rises to my view, while with a savage joy he is triumphing in your miseries.*

3. 'Ye sacred Nine! that all my soul possess,  
 • Whose raptures fire me, and whose visions bless,  
 • Bear me, O bear me, to sequestered scenes,  
 • To bowery mazes, and surrounding greens,  
 • I seem thro' consecrated walks to rove,  
 • I hear soft music die along the grove;  
 • Led by the sound, I roam from shade to shade,  
 • By godlike poets venerable made.' POPE.

In this passage the poet describes the inspiration of the muses and its effects on his mind, as if they were actually present to his feelings.

4. 'To either India see the merchant fly,  
 • Scared at the spectre of pale poverty;  
 • See him with pains of body, pangs of soul,  
 • Burn thro' the tropic, freeze beneath the pole.' POPE.

5. We have an example of this figure in Pope's Elegy to the memory of an unfortunate lady. The passage is as follows:

• What beconing ghost, along the moon-light shade,  
 • Invites my steps and points to yonder glade?  
 • 'Tis she—but why that bleeding bosom gored,  
 • Why dimly gleams the visionary sword?  
 • O ever beauteous, ever friendly, tell,  
 • Is it in heaven a crime to love too well?

6. We may perhaps plead this figure as an authority for using present instead of past time, when we wish to enliven what we say. In the following sentence the two last lines are in the present tense, although the preceding ones speak of past time:

• In various talk th' instructive hours they pass,  
 • Who gave the ball, or paid the visit last;

‘ One speaks the glory of the British Queen,  
 ‘ And one describes a charming Indian screen.’ POPE.

## PERSONIFICATION.

1. Personification is a figure, by which we attribute life and the use of reason to inanimate objects, and irrational creatures.

2. Grammar assigns the masculine and feminine genders to beings only, that are male and female ; as *he* agrees with a *man*, *she* with a *woman* &c. and the neuter gender to inanimate things ; as, *it* agrees with a *mountain* or a *tree*. But when we use this figure we bestow life on inanimate things, and give them either the masculine or feminine gender.

3. In the following example, *the mountains*, *the water*, and *the deep* are personified and supposed like rational creatures to be astonished at the greatness of God, and to be sensible of his power. The deep is of the masculine gender. *The mountains saw thee, O Lord, and they trembled ; the overflowing of the water passed by ; the deep uttered his voice, and lifted up his hands on high.*

4. Music is personified, and is of the feminine gender :

‘ If in the breast tumultuous joys arise,  
 Music her soft assuasive voice applies.’ POPE.

5. ‘ So saying (Eve) her rash hand in evil hour,  
 ‘ Forth reaching to the fruit, she plucked, she ate ;  
 Earth felt the wound : and nature from her seat  
 ‘ Sighing, through all her works gave signs of woe,  
 ‘ That all was lost.’ MILTON.

6. Now gentle gales

‘ Fanning their odoriferous wings, dispense  
 ‘ Native perfumes, and whisper whence they stole  
 ‘ Those balmy spoils.’ MILTON.

7. ‘ Night’s candles are burnt out, and jocund day,  
 ‘ Stands tip-toe on the misty mountain-top.’ SHAKES.

8. ‘ But look, *the morn* in russet mantle clad,  
 ‘ Walks o’er the dew of yon high eastward hill.’ SHAK.

9. ‘ At his (God’s) command th’ uprooted hills retired  
 ‘ Each to his place : they heard his voice and went

- ‘ Obsequious ; *heaven* his wonted face renewed,  
 ‘ And with fresh flowerets *hill* and *valley* smiled.’

MILTON.

10. ‘ Fair *liberty*, Britannia’s goddess, rears  
 ‘ Her cheerful head, and leads the golden years.’ POPE.

11. ‘ But o’er the twilight groves and dusky caves,  
 ‘ Long sounding iles, and intermingled graves,  
 Black *melancholy* sits and round her throws,  
 ‘ A death-like silence and a dread repose.’ POPE.

12. ‘ He asked the *waves* and asked the felon *winds*,  
 ‘ What dire mishap had doomed this gentle swain.’

MILTON.

13. ‘ The balmy *Zephyrs*, silent since her death,  
 ‘ Lament the ceasing of a sweeter breath ;  
 ‘ No more the *streams* their murmurs shall forbear,  
 ‘ A sweeter music than their own to hear ;  
 ‘ Her fate is whispered by the gentle *breeze*,  
 ‘ And told in sighs to all the trembling *trees* ;  
 ‘ The trembling *trees*, in every plain and wood,  
 ‘ Her fate remurmur to the silver *flood* ;  
 ‘ The *winds*, the *trees*, and *floods* her death deplore,  
 ‘ Daphne, our grief ! our glory ! now no more.’ POPE.

### APOSTROPHE.

1. Apostrophe is a figure, by which we address absent persons, or inanimate objects, which we personify. This is the boldest and most animated figure of Rhetoric.

2. In the sacred scriptures the sword of the Lord is thus personified and addressed : ‘ O thou sword of the Lord ! how long will it be ere thou be quiet ? put thyself up into thy scabbard, rest and be still !’

3. Philoctetes in the excess of grief and despair thus addresses the rocks and mountains of Lemnos :

- ‘ O mountains, rivers, rocks, and savage herds  
 ‘ To you I speak ! to you alone, I now  
 ‘ Must breathe my sorrows ! you are wont to hear  
 ‘ My sad complaints, and I will tell you all,  
 ‘ That I have suffered from Achilles’ son.’

4. King Henry thus apostrophizes sleep :

- ‘ O gentle sleep,  
 ‘ Nature’s soft nurse, how have I frightened thee,

‘ That thou no more wilt weigh my eye-lids down  
 ‘ And steep my senses in forgetfulness ?  
 ‘ Wilt thou, upon the high and giddy mast,  
 ‘ Seal up the ship boy’s eyes and rock his brains  
 ‘ In cradle of the rude imperious surge ?  
 ‘ Canst thou, O partial *sleep*, give thy repose  
 ‘ To the wet sea-boy in an hour so rude,  
 ‘ And in the calmest and the stillest night,  
 ‘ Deny it to a King.’

SHAKESPEARE.

5. Adam in his first surprize after his creation thus apostrophizes every thing he sees :

‘ Thou *sun*, fair light,  
 ‘ And thou enlightened *earth*, so fresh and gay,  
 ‘ Ye *hills* and *dales*, ye *rivers*, *woods*, and *plains*,  
 ‘ And ye that live and move, fair *creatures* tell,  
 ‘ Tell, if ye saw, how came I thus, how here.’

MILTON.

6. Adam lamenting his transgression apostrophizes all the objects around him :

‘ Why comes not death,  
 ‘ Said he, with one thrice acceptable stroke,  
 ‘ To end me ? shall truth fail to keep her word ?  
 ‘ O *woods*, O *fountains*, *hillocks*, *dales* and *bowers*,  
 ‘ With other echo late I taught your shades  
 ‘ To answer, and resound far other song !’

MILTON.

7. Eve thus laments her leaving paradise :  
 ‘ Must I thus leave thee, *paradise* ! thus leave  
 ‘ Thee *native soil*, these happy walks and shades,  
 ‘ Fit haunt of Gods ! where I had hope to spend  
 ‘ Quiet, though sad, the respite of that day,  
 ‘ Which must be mortal to us both. O *flowers*  
 ‘ That never will in other climate grow !  
 ‘ Who now shall rear you to the sun, or rank  
 ‘ Your tribes ?’

MILTON.

8. ‘ O *Liberty* ! thou goddess heavenly bright,  
 ‘ Profuse of bliss, and pregnant with delight !  
 ‘ Eternal pleasures in thy presence reign,  
 ‘ And smiling plenty leads thy wanton train.’

ADDISON.

### INTERROGATION.

1. Interrogation is a figure, which by asking a question gives ardor and energy to our discourse.

2. Demosthenes in his endeavours to rouse the i

dolent Athenians against the incroachments of Philip King of Macedonia, uses frequent interrogations : *tell me, says he, will you still go about, and ask one another, what news ? What news can be more astonishing, than that a Macedonian should make war upon the Athenians and regulate the affairs of Greece ? Is Philip dead ? No, but he is sick. What signifies to you whether he be dead or alive ? for if any thing happens to this Philip, you will soon raise up another.*

3. The serpent in his temptation of Eve uses frequent interrogations : ‘ Ye shall not die :

‘ How should you ? By the fruit ? It gives you life,  
 ‘ To knowledge ; By the threatener ? look on me,  
 ‘ Me who have touched and tasted, yet both live  
 ‘ And life more perfect have attained than fate  
 ‘ Meant me, by venturing higher than my lot.  
 ‘ Shall that be shut to man, which to the beast  
 ‘ Is open ? or will God incense his ire  
 ‘ For such a petty trespass ?’ *MILTON.*

4. Abdiel thus expostulates with Satan :

‘ Shalt thou give law to God ? shalt thou dispute,  
 ‘ With him the points of liberty, who made  
 ‘ Thee what thou art, and formed the powers of heaven ?’  
*MILTON.*

5. Fame answers by interrogations the request of the virtuous who wish to remain in obscurity :

‘ Tis all we beg thee, to conceal from sight  
 ‘ Those acts of goodness, which themselves requite.  
 ‘ And live there men, who slight immortal fame ?  
 ‘ Who then with incense shall adore our name ?’ *POPE.*

6. Sarpedon thus interrogates Glaucus ;

‘ Why boast we, Glaucus, our extended reign  
 ‘ Where Xanthus’ streams enrich the Lycian plain ?  
 ‘ Why on these shores are we with joy surveyed,  
 ‘ Admired as heroes, and as gods obeyed,  
 ‘ Unless great acts superior merit prove,  
 ‘ And vindicate the bounteous powers above ?’ *ILIAD.*

### EXCLAMATION.

1. An exclamation is a figure that expresses some strong emotion of the mind, and is generally introduced by an interjection.



2. The Apostle in admiration of the greatness of God, exclaims : *O the depth of the riches both of the wisdom and knowledge of God ! how unsearchable are his judgments, and his ways past finding out !*

3. The following stanza may be considered as a series of exclamations :

‘ The world recedes, it disappears !

‘ Heaven opens on my eyes ! my ears

‘ With sounds seraphic ring !

‘ Lend ! lend your wings ! I mount ! I fly !

‘ O grave, where is thy victory !

‘ O death, where is thy sting !’

POPE.

4. Sampson, when blind and in the power of his enemies, thus complains :

‘ O loss of sight ! of thee I most complain ;

‘ Blind among enemies ! O worse than chains,

‘ Dungeon, or beggary, or decrepid age !’ MILTON.

5. In the following verses the exclamations upon the future change in Eve’s condition are pathetic :

‘ She to him (Adam) as oft engaged

‘ To be returned by noon amid the bower,

‘ And all things in best order to invite

‘ Noon-tide repast, or afternoon’s repose.

‘ O much deceived, much failing, hapless Eve !

‘ Of thy presumed return, event perverse !

‘ Thou never from that hour in paradise,

‘ Found’st either sweet repast or sound repose !’ MILTON.

6. Adam, after seeing Abel murdered, exclaims :

‘ Alas, both for the deed and for the cause !

‘ But have I now seen death ! Is this the way

‘ I must return to native dust ? O sight

‘ Of terror, foul and ugly to behold !

‘ Horrid to think, how horrible to feel !’ MILTON.

7. ‘ The nymph in beauteous grief appears,

‘ Her eyes half languishing, half drowned in tears ;

‘ On her heaved bosom hung her drooping head,

‘ Which with a sigh she raised ; and thus she said :

‘ For ever cursed be this detested day,

‘ Which snatched my best, my favourite curl away !

‘ Happy ! ah ten times happy had I been,

‘ If Hampton-Court these eyes had never seen !’

### AMPLIFICATION.

1. Amplification is a figure, that exaggerates the circumstances of some object or action, which we want to place in a strong light. It may be called description.

2. Adam's consternation, when he heard of Eve's having eaten the forbidden fruit, is thus described ; and his dropping the garland, which he was preparing for her, is finely imaged :

' On the other side, Adam, soon as he heard  
' The fatal trespass done by Eve, amazed,  
' Astonished stood and blank, while horror chill  
' Ran through his veins, and all his joints relaxed :  
' From his slack hand the garland wreathed for Eve  
' Down dropped, and all the faded roses shed :  
' Speechless he stood and pale' — *MILTON.*

3. Description of the peacock :

' How rich the peacock ! what bright glories run,  
' From plume to plume, and vary in the sun !  
' He proudly spreads them to the golden ray,  
' Gives all his colours, and adorns the day ;  
' With conscious state the spacious round displays,  
' And slowly moves amid the waving blaze.'

4. Description of time :

' Time in advance behind him hides his wings,  
' And seems to creep, decrepid with his age :  
' Behold him when passed by ; what then is seen  
' But his broad pinions swifter than the wind.'

5. Description of the evening and rising moon :

' Now came still evening on, and twilight grey  
' Had in her sober livery all things clad ;  
' Silence accompanied, for beast and bird,  
' They to their grassy couch, these to their nests,  
' Were flunk ; all but the wakeful nightingale,  
' She all night long her amorous descant sung.  
' Silence was pleased ; now glowed the firmament  
' With living saphirs ; Hesperus, that led  
' The starry host, rode brightest, till the moon  
' Rising in clouded majesty, at length  
' Apparent Queen unveiled her peerless light,  
' And o'er the dark her silver mantle threw.' *MILTON.*

## 6. Description of the moon :

' As when the moon, refulgent lamp of night,  
 ' O'er heaven's clear azure spreads her sacred light,  
 ' When not a breath disturbs the deep serene,  
 ' And not a cloud o'ercast the solemn scene ;  
 ' Around her throne the vivid planets roll,  
 ' And stars unnumbered gild the glowing pole ;  
 ' O'er the dark trees a yellower verdure shed,  
 ' And tip with silver every mountain's head.  
 ' Then shine the vales, the rocks in prospect rise,  
 ' A flood of glory bursts from all the skies ;  
 ' The conscious swains, rejoicing in the sight,  
 ' Eye the blue vault and bless the cheerful light.' *POPE.*

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 List of common Improperities.
**ACROST** for *across*.*A* little ways for a little way.*Am* for have.*Artur* for after.*Ax* for ask.*Along with* for with.*'Awkid* for awkward. *Awnd**Bomby* for by and by. *by**Batchelder* for bachelor.*Bates* for beets.*Begrutch* for grudge.*Bekays* for because.*Bellowses* for bellows.*Blow'd* for blew.*Bran new* for new.*Bridesgroom* for bride-  
groom.*Brile* for broil.*Callemink* for calamianco.*Charmber* for chamber.*Cheer* for chair.*Chimbly* for chimney.*Clargy* for clergy.*Coard* for cord or chord.*Confort* for concert.*Catch or catch'd* for caught.*Cotton wool* for Cotton.*Curbe* for curve (of a well.)*Curofity* for curiosity.*Daxent* for dare not.*Done* for did.*Dreen* for drain.*Drap* for drop.*Drowneded* for drowned.*Expect* for suspect.*Eend* for end.*Fardding* for farthing.*Forgrd* for forward.*Fore* for before.*Frind* for friend.*Kurder* for further.*Gal* for girl.*Gin* for given.*Hankercher* for handker-  
chief.*Hizzen* for his.

<i>Hearn</i> for <i>heard</i> .	<i>Ruff</i> for <i>roof</i> .
<i>Howzen</i> for <i>houses</i> .	<i>Rozem</i> for <i>rofin</i> .
<i>How</i> for <i>that</i> .	<i>Safte</i> for <i>safe</i> .
<i>Howsomever</i> for <i>however</i> .	<i>Salary</i> for <i>celery</i> .
<i>Huff</i> for <i>hoof</i> .	<i>Sarting</i> for <i>certain</i> .
<i>If so be</i> for <i>if</i> .	<i>Says I</i> for <i>say I</i> or <i>said I</i> .
<i>Ile</i> for <i>oil</i> .	<i>Saxon</i> for <i>sexton</i> .
<i>Improved</i> for <i>occupied</i> .	<i>Scotch free</i> for <i>scot free</i> .
<i>Invy</i> for <i>envy</i> .	<i>Scythe</i> for <i>sigh</i> .
<i>Is</i> for <i>are</i> (in multiplying sums.)	<i>Seck</i> for <i>sex</i> .
<i>Implied</i> for <i>employed</i> .	<i>Sha</i> for <i>chaise</i> .
<i>Keer</i> for <i>care</i> .	<i>Shear</i> for <i>share</i> .
<i>Keerds</i> for <i>cards</i> .	<i>Shot</i> or <i>shet</i> for <i>shut</i> .
<i>Kivver</i> for <i>cover</i> .	<i>Shun</i> for <i>shone</i> .
<i>Know'd</i> for <i>knew</i> .	<i>Sitch</i> for <i>such</i> .
<i>Larnin</i> for <i>learning</i> .	<i>Sile</i> for <i>soil</i> .
<i>Linguister</i> for <i>linguist</i> .	<i>Skase</i> for <i>scarce</i> .
<i>Hold of</i> for <i>esteemed</i> .	<i>Sot</i> for <i>sat</i> or <i>set</i> .
<i>Marracle</i> for <i>miracle</i> .	<i>Speek</i> for <i>spike</i> .
<i>Marvels</i> for <i>marbles</i> .	<i>Spunful</i> for <i>spoonful</i> .
<i>Mile</i> for <i>mile</i> .	<i>Stiddy</i> for <i>steady</i> .
<i>Milyan</i> for <i>melon</i> .	<i>Squinch</i> for <i>quench</i> .
<i>Musicianer</i> for <i>musician</i> .	<i>Stow</i> for <i>stove</i> .
<i>Narra one</i> for <i>none</i> .	<i>Stunded</i> for <i>stunned</i> .
<i>Neeft</i> for <i>nest</i> .	<i>Sut</i> for <i>soot</i> .
<i>Non plush</i> for <i>non plus</i> .	<i>'Taint</i> for <i>it is not</i> .
<i>Over plush</i> for <i>over plus</i> .	<i>Teach'd</i> for <i>attached</i> .
<i>Ourn</i> for <i>ours</i> .	<i>Tell'd</i> for <i>told</i> .
<i>Palmecitty</i> for <i>spermaceti</i> .	<i>That are</i> for <i>that</i> .
<i>Pardner</i> for <i>partner</i> .	<i>Thisere</i> for <i>this</i> .
<i>Parson</i> for <i>person</i> .	<i>Theirn</i> for <i>theirs</i> .
<i>Petition</i> for <i>partition</i> (of a house.)	<i>The tother</i> for <i>the other</i> .
<i>Raly</i> for <i>really</i> .	<i>Towrites</i> for <i>immediately</i> .
<i>Revolutions</i> for <i>evolutions</i> .	<i>Valley</i> for <i>value</i> .
<i>Rabbit</i> for <i>rivet</i> .	<i>Will or no</i> for <i>will or not</i> .
<i>Riz</i> for <i>risen</i> .	<i>Winder</i> for <i>window</i> .
	<i>You'd as goods</i> for <i>you may as well</i> .

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